HISTORY *of the* CABINET

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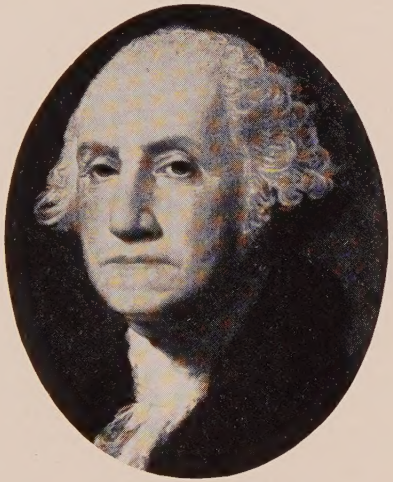
First President



Twenty-ninth President

HISTORY

OF THE

CABINET OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

From President Washington to President Coolidge

AN ACCOUNT OF THE ORIGIN OF THE CABINET, A ROSTER OF THE VARIOUS MEMBERS WITH THE TERM OF SERVICE, AND BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES OF EACH MEMBER, SHOWING PUBLIC OFFICES HELD BY EACH

ILLUSTRATED

BY

WILLIAM HENRY SMITH

Author of "History of Indiana," "Life of Oliver P. Morton, the Great War Governor," "Life and Public Services of Charles W. Fairbanks"

BALTIMORE, MD., U.S.A.
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1925

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DEDICATION

To The National Press Club, of Washington, District of Columbia, that aggregation of industry and intelligence which has done so much to place modern American newspapers on the high plane they occupy in the journalistic world, this book is dedicated by one of an older generation of "molders."

The Author.

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President Coolidge and his Cabinet

FOREWORD

A DISTINGUISHED CRITIC once said that no book should be written or printed unless it had a good object. This book will come under that criticism, for in writing it and in printing it there has been a distinct object—helpfulness to others. In my years of newspaper and magazine work I have often found myself seriously handicapped because I did not have ready at hand a book to which I might quickly refer for some date or fact connected with the life and service of those who had played an important part in the formation of the government. Other writers had expressed in my presence that they had met with the same trouble.

In conversing one day with some teachers, a lady who was a prominent teacher in one of the cities of the Middle West spoke of how she tried to interest her pupils in the history of the country, and had adopted a system of setting apart one hour a week in which she would talk to them about some of the men who had helped to build the nation and of her trouble oftentimes to get the data she desired. My own troubles, and the difficulties of the teacher, caused me to believe there was indeed a want that ought to be supplied. The object of this book is to supply that want.

These men who at various times have held a seat in the cabinet were very largely connected with the shaping of the government and in making it what it is today, the greatest and most successful attempt ever made to organize and conduct a government by the people themselves. They are a part of the nation's history. Some of them were great men, as the world measures greatness—great in statesmanship, great as lawyers and jurists, great in the capacity to manage and conduct successfully large business enterprises. They were, in short, Nation Builders.

Of some of them but little data could be found. Let me take as one illustration of this—Charles Lee, who served Presidents Washington and Adams as Attorney General. Letter after letter was written to citizens of Virginia who were likely to know where some account of his life might be obtained, but only a little light could be found. Encyclopedias and publications by the government were found to contain numerous errors. For instance, one of our great encyclopedias speaks in one place of John Randolph having been Secretary of State, at a time when Randolph had not reached maturity. But he never was Secretary of State. In giving the dates as to service in the cabinet they are taken from the record, and show not the date of appointment but of entering upon the office.

In concluding this "Foreword" acknowledgment should be made on the part of the author and of the publishers for aid extended and cour-

tesies shown. On the part of the author, for material aid given by prominent officials in the several executive departments in securing correct data. In 1922 Secretary Hughes caused to be published a small pamphlet, historical in its character, of the Department of State. Of this the author has made liberal use. On the part of the publishers, thanks are due to the members of President Coolidge's cabinet for the authenticated photographs used. The group portraits of former cabinet members are reproductions of steel engravings preserved by the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. They were kindly furnished the publishers by the Department of the Treasury.

The three illustrations showing the cabinets of Washington, Lincoln and Coolidge in session are reproduced through the courtesy of the National Photo Company, of Washington, District of Columbia. The portrait of President Washington is by the courtesy of the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis. It is one of the only two known to be in existence.

THE AUTHOR.

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Origin of the Cabinet

During the struggle for independence the executive business of the colonies was mainly conducted by committees appointed by the Colonial Congress. Under the Confederation heads were appointed by Congress for the departments of foreign affairs, of finance, and of war, but in no sense of the word did they form a cabinet; each acted separately, reporting to Congress, generally through some committee of that body.

When the Convention met in Philadelphia to form "a more perfect union," the main guide for the making of a constitution was that of England, and at first many of the delegates favored a government by a cabinet similar to that then and now existing in Great Britain.

The Constitution as finally adopted and referred to the several states for ratification makes no provision for a cabinet or council, such as is known in some of the other countries, but this conclusion was only reached after long discussion and after numerous suggestions were made and voted upon.

The plan submitted and supported by Mr. Hamilton contemplated a supreme executive "to have the sole appointment of the heads or chief officers of the departments of finance, of war, and of foreign affairs," these being the only executive departments he deemed necessary. The President was to be the head of this cabinet or council.

Oliver Ellsworth proposed an "executive council" to be composed of the President of the Senate (a vice president not being contemplated), the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, and the heads of the several departments of foreign affairs, of war, of finance, and of marine, when such departments were created by Congress. The President was not to be a member of this council.

Gouverneur Morris submitted a more elaborate plan. His plan proposed the establishment of Secretary of Domestic Affairs, Secretary of Commerce and Finance, Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Secretary of State, Secretary of War, and Secretary of Marine. These with the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court were to make up a council of state, "to assist the President in conducting public affairs." The duties of each were defined, the Chief Justice being authorized to recommend such alterations of and additions to the laws of the United States "as may, in his opinion, be necessary to the due administration of justice, and such as may promote useful learning and inculcate sound morality throughout the Union."

All these suggestions were negatived by the Convention, and no provision enacted for the organization of a cabinet, except that found in clause 1 of section 2 of the Constitution, which provides that the President may require in writing the opinions of the principal officer of each of the executive departments, etc.

It is not mandatory for him to do so. He is authorized only to require such opinions as may relate to the duties of their respective offices, although it is now a matter of common occurrence for the President to consult his cabinet generally upon any important question, especially of policy.

During the Convention there was much discussion as to giving the President the power of removal of the heads of the various departments without the consent of the Senate, but the decision was in favor of such power. This discussion arose again and again in Congress after the establishment of the present form of government, although it had been under thorough discussion in the various states at the time ratification of the Constitution was under consideration, the friends holding that it was necessary to have the consent of the Senate in cases of removal as in those of original appointment. It is fully and elaborately discussed in number 77 of that remarkable series of articles known as "The Federalist." In that article this sentence occurs: "The consent of that body (the Senate) would be necessary to displace as well as appoint." Only two cabinet officers have been peremptorily dismissed—Secretary of State Pickering, by President John Adams, and Secretary of the Treasury Duane, by President Andrew Jackson. President Andrew Johnson attempted to dismiss Secretary of War Stanton, but was prevented by the "Tenure of Office" Act.

It may be said that when the Constitution went into effect in 1789 it was the general opinion that no officer appointed by the President by and with the consent of the Senate could be removed without the consent of that body. During the first session of the first Congress the question was discussed at great length, especially in the House of Representatives. A bill was introduced creating the Department of Foreign Affairs, now the Department of State. Among its provisions was one giving the President authority to remove at pleasure the head of the department. The discussion is reported in "The Annals of Congress," vol. 1.

On one side it was contended that the power to appoint and the power to remove must go together. If the President could not appoint without the advice and consent of the Senate, the consent of that body must, of necessity, be given for removal. On the other side it was contended that the power to appoint and the power to remove were executive acts; that if the Constitution had not associated the Senate with the President in the matter of appointment, Congress could not have given it that power, and as the Constitution had not united the Senate with the President in the power to remove, Congress is not authorized to so associate them. One of the strongest opponents of that provision of the bill was Representative Thomas Sumter, of South Carolina. In the course of debate (see "Annals of Congress," vol. 1, page 591), he said: "This bill appears, to my mind, so subversive of the Constitution, and its consequences so destructive of the liberties of

President Washington and His Cabinet

Left to right—George Washington, Alexander Hamilton, Henry Knox, Thomas Jefferson and Edmund Randolph.

the people, that I cannot let it pass without expressing my detestation of the principle it involves."

The bill with the clause conferring on the President the power of removal finally passed the House by a vote of 29 to 22, and the Senate by a majority of two. The question came up again for an angry discussion during the administration of John Adams, when he peremptorily dismissed from his cabinet Timothy Pickering, Secretary of State, who had refused to resign when requested to do so by the President. At that time it was contended heads of departments were on a different footing from any other appointments by the President. The question was still unsettled when Andrew Jackson became President, and he caused to be inserted in the commission issued to cabinet officers a clause stating they should hold their office "during the pleasure of the President."

Stated cabinet meetings as they now exist were unknown until about the middle of the nineteenth century. President Washington adopted the custom of submitting in writing matters on which he desired the opinion of the members of the cabinet, and they met, usually at the home of Secretary Jefferson, and each gave his written reply. Occasionally, however, he did hold meetings of the cabinet, at which he presided. One notable occasion of this kind was when Secretary of State Randolph was confronted with the compromising letters which forced his resignation.

When absent from the seat of government, President Washington required the cabinet to hold weekly meetings, at which Vice President Adams presided. This recognition of the Vice President was not followed until President Wilson was about to sail for Europe, when he requested Vice President Marshall to attend each cabinet meeting and preside.

On five occasions the Senate has rejected cabinet nominations—that of Roger B. Taney, to be Secretary of the Treasury, by President Jackson; Caleb Cushing to be Secretary of the Treasury, James M. Porter, to be Secretary of War, David Henshaw, to be Secretary of the Navy, all nominated by President Tyler; and Henry Stanbery, to be Attorney General, by President Johnson.

When Andrew Jackson became President he appointed five members of Congress to seats in his cabinet. This angered the Whigs, and an amendment to the Constitution was proposed. By it senators and representatives were made ineligible to any office in the gift of the President or Secretary of the Treasury during the term for which they had been elected to sit in Congress, nor for two years thereafter. The proposal met with but little encouragement.

In 1909, when President Taft named Philander C. Knox as Secretary of State, it was discovered he was ineligible owing to the fact that the salary of the Secretary of State had been increased from $8,000 to $12,000 while Mr. Knox was a member of the Senate, and his term of senator had not expired when the appointment was made. This dis-

covery was made by a newspaper correspondent, and for a time created great confusion, as President Taft was very anxious to have Mr. Knox at the head of that important department. To escape from the constitutional dilemma, Congress hastily amended the law fixing the salaries of cabinet members so as to leave that of Secretary of State at $8,000, and Mr. Knox served at that salary while the other members received $12,000 each.

At first members of the cabinet were not appointed for any fixed term, but an act of Congress passed in 1866 provided they should hold their respective offices during the term of the President by whom they were appointed, and for one month thereafter. It is the custom, however, for members of a cabinet to promptly tender their resignations on the incoming of a new President. Originally a person nominated and confirmed to a cabinet position held his office without a new appointment and a new commission under a President succeeding himself, but a custom grew up that when a President, elected to a second term, desires to retain any member of his former cabinet, for him to renominate such person to the Senate. This was not done by President Wilson, nor by President Coolidge on succeeding President Harding.

By an act approved March 1, 1792, it was provided: "In case of removal, death, resignation or inability of both the President and Vice President of the United States, the President of the Senate, or, if there is none, then the Speaker of the House of Representatives, for the time being, shall act as President until the disability is removed, or a President elected."

This remained the order of succession until January 19, 1886, when the order was wholly changed, the new Act reading as follows: "That in case of removal, death, resignation or inability of both the President and Vice President of the United States, the Secretary of State, or if there be none, or in the case of his removal, death, resignation or inability, then the Secretary of the Treasury," with the same limitations as to removal, death, etc., as in case of the Secretary of State, through the whole cabinet list as it then stood, in the following order: Secretary of War, Attorney General, Postmaster General, Secretary of the Navy, Secretary of the Interior, "shall act as President until the disability of the President or Vice President is removed or a President is elected."

It will be noted that "removal" is added to resignation, death, etc. It was provided that when the powers and duties of the office of President shall devolve on any member of the cabinet, if Congress be not then in session, or is not to meet in accordance with the law within twenty days, the cabinet officer succeeding to the powers of President shall issue a proclamation convening Congress in extraordinary session.

It appears that if the election of a President should devolve on the House of Representatives and of a Vice President on the Senate, and they fail to act, there is no provision of law to remedy the matter.

The British and American Systems Compared

It is a common thing for newspaper writers and others to speak of the cabinet as the President's "constitutional advisers." The phrase is incorrect, for the cabinet is unknown to the Constitution except where that instrument says the President may, when he so desires, require the head of any executive department to give him in writing his opinion upon any question of administration of the department. In this, as in other marked respects, the American cabinet is wholly different from that in England. Here the President may consult with or ask the advice of the cabinet as a whole, or of any individual member. In England the cabinet is the real ruling power, and the acts of the cabinet become the acts of the sovereign.

Here the President may select at his own will the various members of the cabinet, with the single exception that he must nominate them and receive the confirmation of the Senate. In our own history only twice has the Senate rejected a cabinet nomination. In England theoretically the King names the cabinet, yet in fact it is named by the House of Commons—that is, the King must name as the Premier the leader of the majority in the House of Commons and the Premier selects the other members. Here the Secretary of State is generally regarded as the premier of the cabinet; there he is the First Lord of the Treasury.

In England the cabinet must be selected from the members of Parliament, and they must remain such member. On being appointed to a cabinet seat they are required to resign their seat in Parliament if a member of the House of Commons, and stand for a re-election. If they fail to be re-elected they lose the cabinet seat. Here if a cabinet seat is tendered to a member of Congress he must resign his seat in Congress. We have only one instance in our history where a member of Congress acted at the same time as a member of the cabinet. When Mr. Jefferson became President he had a hard time to find some one to accept the navy secretaryship, and for several months Samuel Smith, of Maryland, a member of the House of Representatives, acted as Secretary of the Navy, signing papers as such Secretary. There seems to have been no objections raised from any source, but since that time there has been no similar case.

In England the Crown has comparatively little direct participation in the government. The House of Commons, under the leadership of the cabinet, is the real governing power. There the executive power is exercised by the cabinet, or rather by the Prime Minister. There the Secretary of Foreign Affairs is the real spokesman of the nation in all matters concerning other nations. He also, as a rule, accompanies the Crown when he is absent from his usual place of residence or when he goes on a journey to any part of the country. Here the President is never of necessity accompanied on a journey by any member of his cabinet.

The King cannot hold any communication or conversation with a minister of another country except in the presence of the Secretary of Foreign Affairs. Here in practice such private interviews seldom occur, but the President may, if he so desires, hold such communication without the Secretary of State's knowledge.

Here the pardoning power is vested in the President alone. It is true he seldom or never grants a pardon unless it is recommended by the Attorney General, but he can do so. There the prerogative of mercy is in the hands of the Secretary of State for the Home Department, which corresponds very closely to our Department of the Interior. There the Secretary would not tolerate any interference by the Crown. Here the President can appoint or dismiss other officers of the government at his own will, without consulting the cabinet or any individual member. There the appointing power is exercised only upon the advice and consent first being given of the cabinet. The appointing power is really in the hands of the Prime Minister.

There in selecting a Prime Minister the Crown is compelled to select one who has the confidence of the majority in the House of Commons. In short, he must be a member of the party having for the time being a majority in the House of Commons. So long as he can retain the confidence of the majority in the House the Crown cannot dismiss him from office. When a Prime Minister is appointed he at once selects the other members of the cabinet and the Crown must accept his selection. Here no member of the cabinet has any control over the selection of the other members. It is said that when Mr. Seward, who had been selected by President Lincoln for Secretary of State, heard that Mr. Chase had been selected for the head of the Department of the Treasury, he undertook to influence the President to make a change. Mr. Lincoln curtly told him that if Chase were left out Mr. Seward would also be on the outside. In England, when the Prime Minister has made his selections, he submits the list to the Crown as a mere matter of form.

The British cabinet is not fixed as to numbers, but varies in size according to the will of the Prime Minister. There the Prime Minister is the official link between the Crown and the cabinet. When a decision has been reached on any question, but not before, it becomes the duty of the Premier to acquaint the sovereign with the facts. This is done nominally for the purpose of obtaining the royal pleasure regarding the matters discussed, but as a matter of fact the Crown must ultimately yield to the wishes of the Prime Minister. It is a maxim of the English government that the cabinet is responsible to Parliament, which, in reality, is the House of Commons. An adverse vote in the House of Commons terminates the existence of the Ministry, but a similar vote in the House of Lords does not. It is thus essential that the existing Ministry should have the confidence and support of a majority in the House of Commons.

Here either house of Congress can play "ducks and drakes" with the estimates made by the various heads of departments for the expenditures of the departments, but in England the cabinet must not allow its financial estimates to be defeated or materially changed. When the cabinet goes before the House of Commons and states that a certain expenditure is necessary for the year it must stand or fall on that proposition. On this subject Mr. Gladstone once said: "No government could be worthy of its place if it permitted its estimates to be seriously resisted by the Opposition; and important changes can be made therein only in circumstances which permit of the raising of the question of a change of government."

In Great Britain the Parliament is obedient to the cabinet or the cabinet must go out of power. In America Congress resents any attempt to direct it by the cabinet or by the President. Let one incident suffice as an illustration. In 1887 the gold reserve in the treasury was being daily depleted—in fact, had almost reached the vanishing point. President Cleveland and Mr. Carlisle, his Secretary of the Treasury, called the attention of Congress to this and that the good faith and financial honor of the country was gravely imperiled. Congress did nothing; President Cleveland alternately plead, indeed fairly begged for action, and stormed and scolded—all to no effect. Congress remained deaf to it all. Finally Secretary Carlisle was compelled to go to New York and seek in Wall Street the gold with which to maintain the credit of the government.

Here the President writes his own messages to Congress, and need not consult the cabinet as a whole, or any individual member of it, but in England the address to Parliament is written by the cabinet, principally by the Prime Minister, and it is looked upon as the official utterance of the government ministers.

Here the cabinet are administrative officials only—that is, their mission is to carry out the laws enacted by Congress. In England, however, the most serious business of the cabinet has to do with the enacting of laws. It is an established principle that the ministers are responsible for the introduction and passage of all needful legislation. Private members may introduce measures, as in the United States, but if they are not adopted by the cabinet they stand slight chance of receiving consideration. There it is the duty of the ministry to prevent the passage of objectionable bills. This can easily be done. In the United States Congress would quickly grow indignant if the cabinet should seriously attempt to prevent the passage of any bill. There the cabinet is accorded every facility for effective and speedy legislation. The law officers of the Crown render very valuable services in this respect. The Attorney General and the Solicitor General always have seats in the House of Commons, and an important part of their duty is to assist in framing bills in a scientific manner. In our Congress bills are framed, oftentimes, by outsiders, and presented by a member,

neither of them having any great experience in such matters. The result is that the work is often done in a very crude manner.

Professor Moran, in his admirable book "The English Government," thus sums up the theory and practice in England:

> According to the theory of the English law there is a complete separation of the executive and legislative departments. As a matter of fact, however, the two departments are very closely united, even fused. In theory the Prime Minister is appointed by the Crown; in practice the House of Commons governs the choice. In theory the Crown also appoints the colleagues of the Premier in the cabinet; in practice the Prime Minister dictates these appointments. In theory the Crown makes appointments to office in the nation at large and dispenses patronage generally; in practice the cabinet, principally the Prime Minister, performs those duties. In theory the Crown dissolves Parliament; in practice the Prime Minister dictates the time. In theory laws are enacted by the Crown by the advice and consent of Parliament; in practice laws are enacted by Parliament under the guidance of the cabinet without the advice or consent of the Crown. Such royal advice or consent as is granted is merely formal and could not affect the result. Should the King be rash enough to advise contrary to the wishes of the ministers, his ideas could not prevail.

In the United States the President always sits at the head of the table when the cabinet meets. In fact, the cabinet meets only on his call. In England the King is not permitted to attend the meeting of the cabinet. It will be recalled that President Wilson demanded the resignation of Secretary of State Lansing because he, at a time when the President was wholly incapacitated by illness, called meetings of the cabinet to consult on routine matters. Such a thing would be impossible in England.

In this country Congress may trample all over the recommendations of any member of the cabinet, or even over those of the President himself, and it will make no change in the complexion of the cabinet. It very frequently occurs that Congress rejects the recommendations made, especially those made by the Secretaries of State, War and Navy, and it sometimes occurs that bills which they wholly condemn are enacted into laws, but the defeated officers do not resign.

It has frequently been agitated in Congress to make our cabinet a little more like that of England, especially as to make its members responsible to Congress. A number of times bills have been introduced providing that members of the cabinet be given seats on the floor of the House and Senate and be permitted to join in debates on matters concerning their departments.

Now a word as to the origin of the name—cabinet. In the early days in England when the King had a Privy Council it consisted of a large number. The habit grew up for the King on all important questions to select a few members of the Privy Council and take them into a small room adjacent to his own room, generally termed a cabinet, and there consult with them. The term "cabinet" was given in derision to these selected few. Thus from what was first always spoken in derision grew the honorable term cabinet, as we now have it in both England and the United States.

Foreign Affairs Under the Colonial System

Before and during the War for Independence several of the colonies maintained agents in England. They were called "Friends to American Liberty." These agents were Paul Wentworth, Charles Garth, William Bollan, Thomas Life, Edmund Burke, Arthur Lee and Benjamin Franklin. They were instructed to act for the "United Colonies," but Bollan, Lee and Franklin were the only three who did so. They were the representatives of a power destined soon afterwards to declare its independence, and their duties were to a certain extent diplomatic.

When the Congress met in 1775 it was known that the efforts of the American agents in London had failed to secure a redress of grievances and that the colonies had to choose between submission to the king or rebellion against his authority. An important means by which the rebellion might be successfully prosecuted was provided in the "Committee of Secret Correspondence," selected November 29, 1775, with Benjamin Franklin as its chairman and guiding spirit, and Benjamin Harrison, of Virginia; John Dickinson, of Pennsylvania; Thomas Johnson, of Maryland, and John Jay, of New York, as its members. This was really a committee of foreign affairs. It opened correspondence with Arthur Lee, among others, instructing him to communicate with the French minister of foreign affairs, Count Vergennes, and ask French aid for the colonies. This was the beginning of the negotiations, which resulted three years later in the alliance, offensive and defensive, with France.

But after its first action the Committee of Secret Correspondence ceased to be of importance, Congress preferring to manage the foreign affairs of the country by itself, and on April 17, 1777, the title of the committee was changed and it became the "Committee for Foreign Affairs." The first members were Benjamin Harrison, of Virginia; Robert Morris, of Pennsylvania; Thomas Hayward, Jr., of North Carolina, and James Lovell, of Massachusetts, but the personnel of the committee underwent constant change. The first secretary of the committee was Thomas Paine, who received a salary of seventy dollars a month. He was dismissed in January, 1779, because he made an official matter public. The chief function of the committee was to furnish the agents of the government abroad with accounts of the progress of events in America. Beyond that it simply executed the orders of Congress and had little real power over our foreign affairs. The only member who remained continuously on the committee was Lovell. He was a Boston school teacher; was imprisoned by the British after the battle of Bunker Hill; was exchanged later and elected a member of Congress in December, 1776, serving until 1782. He is represented as having

been a man of learning and ability, but of such eccentricities of manner and temper as to lead at times to doubts of his sanity.

The necessity for some channel through which to conduct foreign affairs resulted finally in "a plan for the Department of Foreign Affairs," reported to Congress in January, 1781. The opening paragraph of the plan stated:

> That the extent and rising power of these United States entitles them to a place among the great potentates of Europe, while our political and commercial interests point out the propriety of cultivating with them a friendly correspondence and connection.

It was not until August 10 that the department was organized, and Robert R. Livingston, of New York, was elected the secretary. He had been a member of the old committee for a short time in 1779. He continued to act as Secretary for Foreign Affairs until June 4, 1783. Dr. Francis Wharton estimates his character and services in the diplomatic correspondence of the American Revolution. "Livingston," he says, "though a much younger man than Franklin, possessed, in his dispassionateness and his many-sidedness, not a few of Franklin's characteristics. From his prior administrative experience as royalist recorder of New York he had at least some acquaintance with practical government in America; his thorough studies as scholar and jurist gave him a knowledge of administrative politics in other spheres. * * * He did more than anyone in the home government in shaping its foreign policy."

Although Livingston's department was under constant instructions from Congress and was permitted to take no independent action, its duties were, nevertheless, highly important, as it was the medium for all correspondence with our agents abroad. The method of correspondence was perilous and laborious. At least four and sometimes seven copies of every letter were sent, to lessen the chances of loss from capture, and on each packet was written the warning, "To be sunk in case of danger from the enemy." Ciphers were freely used and some of the letters were in invisible ink. Nevertheless, a large portion of the correspondence went to the British foreign office, where the ciphers were probably understood.

When Livingston gave up his office June 4, 1783, he left the business of the department in the hands of the under secretary, Lewis R. Morris; but Morris was without authority to act, and severed his connection with the department soon afterwards, his place being taken by Henry Remsen, Jr. As a matter of fact, however, the Department of Foreign Affairs practically ceased to exist, and Congress managed the foreign relations of the country directly, committees being appointed as occasion arose to consider specific questions.

John Jay, of New York, was one of the commissioners who, in 1783, negotiated at Paris the definitive treaty of peace with Great Britain. He sailed for home in the summer of 1784, and before his arrival was elected Secretary of Foreign Affairs on motion of Elbridge Gerry, of

Massachusetts. He took the oath of office and entered on his duties September 21, 1784, and the functions of the department were revived, but they were ill defined and limited, and the secretary was constantly complaining of the unsatisfactory nature of his authority.

On September 16, 1788, was taken the last act relative to foreign affairs by the expiring Congress, when it

> *Resolved,* That no further progress be made in the negotiations with Spain by the Secretary for Foreign Affairs, but that the subject to which they relate be referred to the federal government which is to assemble in March next.

THE GREAT SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES

The Great Seal of the United States

The Great Seal, which is under the custody of the Secretary of State, is affixed only to the commissions of the members of the cabinet, diplomatic and consular officers, and to civil officers appointed by the President, to ceremonial communications from the President to foreign governments, to exequaturs, and to warrants of extradition of fugitives to foreign governments. By provision of a law enacted in 1789 the seal cannot be affixed to any commission or document until the same has been signed by the President.

The Great Seal now in use is the same as that used by the Confederation before the adoption of the Constitution. Immediately after the adoption of the Declaration of Independence the Continental Congress appointed Benjamin Franklin, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson a committee to prepare "a device for a seal for the United States of America." They made a report on August 26, 1776, but it was never acted upon. Many suggestions were made to the committee, and each member of the committee suggested a device, but none proved entirely satisfactory.

Some of the designs submitted were really unique. That suggested by Mr. Jefferson proposed a shield with six quarterings, to represent the countries from which the United States were settled. The first, gold and an enameled rose, red and white, for England; the second, white with a thistle, in proper colors, for Scotland; the third, green with a harp of gold, for Ireland; the fourth, blue with a golden lily, for France; the fifth, gold with the imperial black eagle, for Germany; and the sixth, gold with the Belgic crowned red lion, for Holland. Around the shield in a red border were thirteen white escutcheons, linked together by a gold chain, bearing in black the initials of the thirteen states. The supporters of the shield were: on the right side the Goddess of Liberty, in a corselet of armor, in allusion to the then state of war, and holding the spear and cap in her right hand, while with the left she supported the shield. The support on the left hand was the Goddess of Justice, leaning on a sword in her right hand and holding in her left a balance. For a crest, the eye of Providence in a radiant triangle, whose glory should extend over the shield. The motto was: *"E pluribus unum."* Around the whole seal were the words: "United States of America," with the date, MDCCLXXVI. The device for the reverse was Pharaoh sitting in an open chariot, with a crown on his head and a sword in his hand, passing through the Red Sea in pursuit of the Israelites. Rays from a pillar of fire in a cloud, as expressive of the divine command and presence, were beaming on Moses standing on the shore, and extending his hand over the sea, causing it to overwhelm Pharaoh. The motto was: "Resistance to tyrants is obedience to God."

It is a singular fact that it remained for a British nobleman to suggest a satisfactory device. While John Adams was in London the question of a seal was discussed by him with Sir John Prestwick, an English antiquarian, and Sir John submitted to Mr. Adams a device which was finally adopted. Mr. Adams sent the device to Franklin and Jefferson, who submitted it, after some delay, to Congress.

On June 20, 1782, the Continental Congress adopted a device "for an armorial achievement and reverse of the Great Seal for the United States in Congress assembled," as follows:

ARMS: Paleways of thirteen pieces, argent and gules; a chief azure; the escutcheon on the breast of an American eagle displayed proper, holding in his dexter talon an olive branch, and in his sinister, a bundle of thirteen arrows, all proper, and in his beak a scroll inscribed with the motto, *"E pluribus unum."*

CREST: Over the head of the eagle, which appears above the escutcheon, a glory, or, breaking through a cloud, proper, and surrounding thirteen stars, forming a constellation, argent, on an azure field.

REVERSE: A pyramid unfinished. In the zenith, an eye in a triangle surrounded with glory, proper. Over the eye these words: *"Annuit coeptis."* On the base of the pyramid, the numerical letters, "MDCCLXXVI," and underneath the following motto: *"Novus ordo seclorum."*

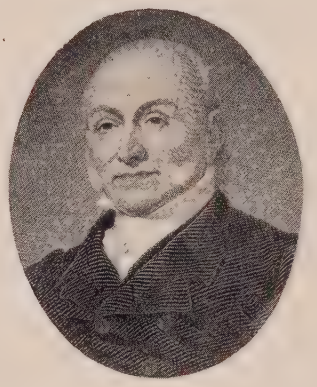
The report of the committee recommending the adoption of the device, was accompanied by the following explanation:

The escutcheon is composed of the chief and pale, the two most honorable ordinaries. The pieces pales represent the several states all joined in one solid compact entire, supporting a chief, which unites the whole and represents Congress. The motto alludes to this union. The pales in the arms are kept closely united by the chief, and the chief depends on that union and the strength resulting from it for its support, to denote the confederacy of the United States of America; and the preservation of their union through Congress. The colors of the pales are those used in the flag of the United States of America; white signifies purity and innocence; red, hardiness and valor; and the blue, the color of the chief, signifies vigilant perseverance and justice. The olive branch and arrows denote the power of peace and war, which is exclusively vested in Congress. The constellation denotes a new state taking its place and rank among other sovereign powers. The escutcheon is borne on the breast of an American eagle without any other supporters, to denote that the United States of America ought to rely on their own virtue. The pyramid on the reverse signifies strength and duration. The eye over it and the motto allude to the many signal interpositions of Providence in favor of the American cause. The date underneath is that of the Declaration of Independence, and the words underneath it signify the beginning of the new American era, which commences from that date.

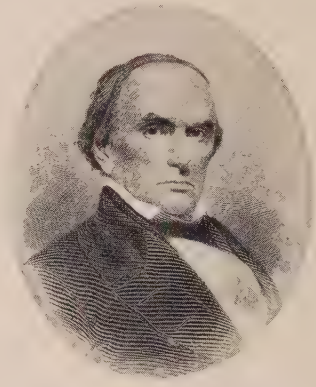
The Latin motto over the eye on the reverse of the seal, *"Annuit coeptis,"* translated is "God has favored the undertaking." The words beneath the unfinished pyramid, *"Novus ordo seclorum,"* designate "A new series of ages."

The first die for the seal was cut in 1782, and was used continually until 1841, when, having become so worn that a perfect impression could not be made, Daniel Webster, at that time Secretary of State,

ordered a new die. The order was made without authority from Congress, and resulted in the use for more than twenty years of an illegal seal. Secretary Webster gave the order for cutting the new die to a jeweler in a small town in Maryland. The die was made and accepted by the Secretary, and used by him, notwithstanding the cutter had materially deviated from the design adopted by Congress. Two differences may be noted. In the pales the red were twice the size of the whites, when all should have been equal. Instead of thirteen arrows in the eagle's sinister talon there were only six. This was corrected in 1883, and a new die made, according in every respect to the design adopted by Congress. The die now in use was cut in 1902. No die has ever been made of the reverse of the seal.



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS



DANIEL WEBSTER

THOMAS JEFFERSON

JOHN M. CLAYTON

WM. H. SEWARD

The Department of State

The Department of State was created by act of Congress, approved July 27, 1789, entitled "An act for establishing an executive department, to be denominated the Department of Foreign Affairs." It was the first of the executive departments to be established under the Constitution. The act provided that the principal officer of the new department should be called the "Secretary of Foreign Affairs." The act was a short one, consisting of only four sections, only one of which had relation to the powers and duties of the head of the department. That section reads:

> Shall perform and execute such duties as shall from time to time be enjoined on or entrusted to him by the President of the United States, agreeable to the Constitution, relative to correspondence, commissions or instructions to or with public ministers or consuls, from the United States, or to negotiations with public ministers from foreign states or princes, or to memorials or other applications from foreign public ministers or other foreigners, or to such other matters respecting foreign affairs, as the President of the United States shall assign to said department; furthermore, that the said principal officer shall conduct the business of the said department in such manner as the President of the United States shall from time to time order or instruct.

The Secretary of the department was authorized to appoint a chief clerk, but no provision was made by the act for any other inferior officer or employees. By an act approved September 15, 1789, the designation of the department was changed from that of Foreign Affairs to that of State. The act of September 15 was entitled "An act to provide for the safekeeping of the acts, records and seal of the United States, and for other purposes." It changed the title of the principal officer of the department to Secretary of State.

By this act the duties of the Secretary were greatly enlarged. Under the act establishing the department he could transact only such business as the President might entrust to him relating to foreign affairs, but under that of September 15 he was made the custodian of the acts and resolutions of Congress and of the Great Seal of the United States. He was also required by this act to make out and certify all commissions issued to civil officers appointed by the President. He now attests and affixes the Great Seal to all executive proclamations, to various commissions, and to warrants for the extradition of fugitives

from justice. He is also the custodian of the treaties made with foreign nations. He grants and issues passports; and all exequaturs to foreign consuls in the United States are issued from his office. He receives ministers and ambassadors from foreign countries and presents them to the President. He is the official through whom the President conducts all official correspondence with the governors of the various states of the Union.

He is regarded as first in rank among the members of the cabinet, and is the first named in the order of succession in case of death or disability of both the President and Vice President. He is frequently spoken of as the "premier" of the cabinet, but there is no such title or designation known to our laws.

There is now an Under Secretary and three Assistant Secretaries of State, one authorized by law in 1855, one in 1866 and the third in 1874. The Under Secretary was provided for in 1923. The Assistant Secretaries have charge over the detail work of the department. The next in rank to the Secretary is the Under Secretary. In case of the absence or inability of the Secretary he becomes the Acting Secretary.

As originally organized the department had charge and supervision of the mint, of the issue of patents and copyrights, taking the census, of the affairs of the territories, and of the issue of pardons. Patents are now under the charge of the Secretary of the Interior, and copyrights under the librarian of Congress. Affairs of the territories are also now under the Department of the Interior, and taking the census under the Department of Commerce, and supervision of the mint is under the Treasury Department. In 1893 by executive order President Cleveland transferred the matter of pardons to the Department of Justice. After the war with Spain a new bureau, known as the Bureau of Foreign Trade Advisors, was added to the department.

Each of the executive departments has a distinctive seal by which matters originating in the department are authenticated. That of the State Department has the spread eagle with the national shield upon its breast, and the arrows of war, and the olive branch of peace in its talons. Over it are the words "DEPARTMENT OF STATE."

The salary of the Secretary of State, as fixed by the law of 1789, was $3,500; in 1799 it was made $5,000; in 1819, $6,000; in 1853, $8,000; in 1873, $10,000; in 1874 it was reduced to $8,000, and in 1909 was made $12,000.

Many times since the organization of the State Department our diplomatic relations with other countries have required the most delicate and wisest handling. At the very start treaties of friendship and commerce had to be made with foreign governments, and as we were still in our national swaddling clothes rare skill was needed on the part of our authorities to secure ample recognition. We had hardly got our constitutional machinery in fair running order when the revolution in

France threw all Europe into a blaze of war, which lasted for twenty years. The demands of France and England were especially antagonistic, and both countries treated us with contempt. We made a treaty with Great Britain which angered France to such an extent that the government there refused to receive our ministers, and finally forced us into a quasi war with that country. Later we were forced to go to war with Great Britain.

Under Napoleon we purchased Louisiana, which almost embroiled us with Spain, and a little later the Barbary Powers defied us to an extent which called for the despatch to the Mediterranean of a powerful fleet. The northeast fisheries, the boundary line between the United States and Canada, conditions in Central America, and later the Bering Sea seal fisheries have each in turn called for the highest diplomatic skill to keep peace between this country and England.

With other countries our relations have sometimes been strained. For instance, with Austria over what is known as the Kosta affair, when Mr. Marcy was at the head of the State Department; the opening of Japan, and later what has been called the "yellow peril" with that country and with China; the Ostend Manifesto, the abolition of the Danish Sound dues, the repeated revolutions in Cuba, and our own Civil War have each called forth the wisdom of our Presidents and of the State Department.

The chief officers of the department now are: Counselor, Assistant Secretary, Second Assistant Secretary, Third Assistant Secretary, Director of Consular Service, chief clerk, solicitor, chief of foreign trade advisors, advisor on commercial treaties.

The detail work is divided among the following bureaus and divisions: Accounts, appointments, citizenship, consular, diplomatic, archives and library.

There are now American diplomatic missions in fifty-one countries. Twelve of these are headed by ambassadors at the major capitals of the world. That is the highest diplomatic rank. Besides these there are thirty-four ministers.

There are more than five hundred American professional consular officers scattered over the world, and working with them are about twenty-two hundred vice consuls, consular agents, clerks, interpreters and other American office personnel. To outline the general instructions under which they work requires more than three thousand paragraphs in the consular regulations, and there is an endless variety of forms and reports pouring back to the United States from every consulate. There are more than four hundred consular offices located in foreign trade centers and some in very remote places.

Probably the most inaccessible is that at Chung King, far back in the interior of China, almost on the frontier of Tibet. To reach it requires six weeks' travel from Shanghai by river. Much of the distance

is traversed in a small river boat, pulled by a hundred Chinese coolies, who are paid a cent a day each. So deep are some of the gorges in this water route that at times the towing ropes seem to stand straight up in the air.

In some parts of the world the consuls also have judicial functions. Usually they manage to settle out of court difficulties involving American citizens.

In speaking of the extension of the activities of the department, and its growth in importance, Secretary Hughes said: "Nevertheless, the foundation of the department remains the same as that which was laid down in the laws passed by the first Congress under the Constitution of 1789. Many statutes affecting the department have been enacted since then, but the organic acts are still in force, having governed for one hundred and thirty-five years."

One of the most important of the legal functions of the department is that of issuing warrants of extradition. Extradition is the delivering up by one government of an individual charged with a crime in some other jurisdiction. In the United States this matter is wholly under the control of the Department of State. The first treaty of this country providing for mutual surrender of criminals was that of 1794 with Great Britain. Since then the practice has become general.

In 1922 Secretary Hughes had prepared and issued a small pamphlet regarding the activities of the Department of State in which occurs the following paragraph defining the functions of consuls:

> A diplomat is the agent of his government to a foreign government, but a consul is his government's agent only in the district in which his consulate is situated. It is the special function of consuls to promote American commerce and watch over commercial interests. But, besides this, they take charge of the estates of American citizens who die abroad without legal representatives; care for stranded American seamen; certify to the correctness of the values of merchandise exported to the United States; aid in the enforcement of the immigration laws, and give advice and protection to American citizens. Their duties are so varied and multifarious that it is impossible to describe them briefly. The consular regulations which prescribe a consul's duties comprise upward of three thousand paragraphs. There are about three hundred principal consular officers, and altogether the service is composed, including vice consuls, clerks, interpreters, etc., of more than sixteen hundred men. Wherever there are American interests in foreign countries there are American consular officers—that is to say, they may be found in all the four quarters of the globe.

In recent years it was found necessary to form divisions having charge of the correspondence with diplomatic and consular offices in particular countries or groups of countries. They deal with our political and commercial relations with different sections of the world. The Division of Far Eastern Affairs was the first established, in 1908. It has general supervision of our relations with China, Japan, Siam, the far eastern possessions of European states, and Siberia. In 1909 the Division of Latin-American Affairs, with similar functions for Central

and South America, was created; also in that year the Division of Western European Affairs and Near Eastern Affairs; in 1915 the Division of Mexican Affairs, and in 1919 the Division of Russian Affairs. By this organization correspondence with and concerning different groups of countries passes into the hands of officials assigned for duty in the department who have in all cases personal knowledge and experience of the affairs of the countries to which the correspondence pertains.

Since the department was organized it has managed our foreign affairs through five wars—the War of 1812 with Great Britain; the Civil War of 1861-65; the War with Spain in 1898, and the World War, of which we were a part from 1917 to 1919 and which put a burden of additional work upon the department from the time that it broke out in August, 1914. In each of these wars the regular organization of the department has been greatly enlarged and a number of vital temporary functions have been added to its normal duties.

Arbitration is at this time one of the questions agitating the statesmen of all countries, and is, in part, one of the functions of the League of Nations. It is no new thing in the United States. In 1797 the question between this country and Great Britain as to the boundary line between the United States and Canada was settled by arbitration. Between that time and the organization of a permanent court of arbitration in 1899, the government of the United States had resorted to arbitration to settle disputes more than forty times. In the two years of 1908 and 1909 twenty-five treaties with foreign nations providing for arbitration were negotiated. In 1914 thirty arbitration treaties were signed.

The Department of State is in close co-operation with all the departments. It furnishes much information to the other departments: To the Treasury Department it sends for the use of the Bureau of Public Health Service information concerning the outbreak in foreign countries of contagious diseases; for the customs service, information concerning importations, false valuations and possible smuggling; to the Interior Department, information regarding patents in foreign countries and foreign patents in the United States covered by treaties; to the Department of Agriculture, information concerning foreign crops and plant and animal diseases. With the Department of Commerce the relations are very close, the Department of State sending to the Department of Commerce reports made by consuls as to trade conditions and opportunities for American citizens to widen trade.

Roster of Secretaries of State

John Jay, of New York.

Secretary of Foreign Affairs under the Confederation, continued at the head of the Department by President Washington until the arrival of Mr. Jefferson in New York, March 21, 1790.

Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia.

From March 22, 1790, to December 31, 1793.

Edmund Randolph, of Virginia.

From January 2, 1790, to August 20, 1795.

Timothy Pickering, of Pennsylvania.

From December 10, 1795, to May 12, 1800.

John Marshall, of Virginia.

From June 6, 1800, to March 3, 1801.

James Madison, of Virginia.

From May 2, 1801, to March 3, 1809.

Robert Smith, of Maryland.

From March 6, 1809, to March 31, 1811 (*see* Department of the Navy).

James Monroe, of Virginia.

From April 6, 1811, to September 30, 1814, and from February 28, 1815, to March 3, 1817.

John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts.

From September 22, 1817, to March 3, 1825.

Henry Clay, of Kentucky.

From March 7, 1825, to March 3, 1829.

Martin Van Buren, of New York.

From March 28, 1829, to May 23, 1831.

Edward Livingston, of Louisiana.

From May 24, 1831, to May 29, 1833.

Louis McLane, of Delaware.

From May 29, 1833, to June 30, 1834 (*see* Department of the Treasury).

John Forsyth, of Georgia.

From July 1, 1834, to March 3, 1841.

Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts.

From March 6, 1841, to May 8, 1843, and from July 23, 1850, to October 24, 1852.

ABEL P. UPSHUR, of Virginia.
From July 24, 1843, to February 28, 1844 (*see* Department of the Navy).

JOHN C. CALHOUN, of South Carolina.
From April 1, 1844, to March 10, 1845 (*see* Department of War).

JAMES BUCHANAN, of Pennsylvania.
From March 10, 1845, to March 7, 1849.

JOHN M. CLAYTON, of Delaware.
From March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850.

EDWARD EVERETT, of Massachusetts.
From November 6, 1852, to March 3, 1853.

WILLIAM L. MARCY, of New York.
From March 8, 1853, to March 6, 1857.

LEWIS CASS, of Michigan.
From March 6, 1857, to December 14, 1860 (*see* Department of War)

JEREMIAH S. BLACK, of Pennsylvania.
From December 17, 1860, to March 6, 1861 (*see* Department of Justice).

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, of New York.
From March 6, 1861, to March 4, 1869.

ELIHU B. WASHBURN, of Illinois.
From March 5, 1869, to March 16, 1869.

HAMILTON FISH, of New York.
From March 17, 1869, to March 12, 1877.

WILLIAM M. EVARTS, of New York.
From March 12, 1877, to March 7, 1881.

JAMES G. BLAINE, of Maine.
From March 7, 1881, to December 19, 1881, and from March 7, 1889, to June 4, 1892.

FREDERICK T. FRELINGHUYSEN, of New Jersey.
From December 19, 1881, to March 6, 1885.

THOMAS F. BAYARD, of Delaware.
From March 7, 1885, to March 6, 1889.

JOHN W. FOSTER, of Indiana.
From June 29, 1892, to February 23, 1893.

WALTER Q. GRESHAM, of Illinois.
From March 7, 1893, to May 28, 1895.

RICHARD OLNEY, of Massachusetts.
From June 10, 1895, to March 5, 1897.

JOHN SHERMAN, of Ohio.
From March 6, 1897, to April 27, 1898 (*see* Department of the Treasury).

WILLIAM R. DAY, of Ohio.
From April 28, 1898, to September 21, 1898.

JOHN HAY, of District of Columbia.
From September 30, 1898, to July 10, 1905.

ELIHU ROOT, of New York.
From July 19, 1905, to January 27, 1909.

ROBERT BACON, of New York.
From January 27, 1909, to March 4, 1909.

PHILANDER C. KNOX, of Pennsylvania.
From March 5, 1909, to March 4, 1913.

WILLIAM J. BRYAN, of Nebraska.
From March 5, 1913, to June 22, 1915.

ROBERT LANSING, of District of Columbia.
From June 23, 1915, to February 14, 1920.

BAINBRIDGE COLBY, of New York.
From March 24, 1920, to March 4, 1921.

CHARLES EVANS HUGHES, of New York.
From March 5, 1921, to March 4, 1925.

FRANK B. KELLOGG, of Minnesota.
From March 4, 1925.

Edmund Randolph had served first as Attorney General in the administration of President Washington before being appointed Secretary of State to succeed Thomas Jefferson. His resignation as Secretary of State was demanded by the President. The cause is related in his biography.

Timothy Pickering had been Postmaster General and Secretary of War under President Washington before he became Secretary of State on the enforced resignation of Edmund Randolph. He was summarily dismissed by President John Adams, May 12, 1800, having refused to resign when requested so to do by the President.

John Marshall continued to act as Secretary of State for a period of one month after taking the oath of office as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

Robert Smith had served as Secretary of the Navy in the cabinet of President Jefferson. He had also been nominated and confirmed as Attorney General under Mr. Jefferson, but remained at the head of the Navy Department, on request.

On September 26, 1814, Secretary of State James Monroe was transferred to the War Department and held that position until February 28, 1815. During that period he acted as Secretary of State *ad interim*. On February 28, 1815, he was again appointed as head of the State Department, serving until he became President himself.

Louis McLane was Secretary of the Treasury when he was transferred to the State Department by President Jackson.

Abel P. Upshur was Secretary of the Navy when he was named to head the State Department by President Tyler.

John C. Calhoun served as Secretary of War during the two terms of President Monroe.

William L. Marcy was Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Polk.

Lewis Cass served for a time as Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Jackson.

Jeremiah S. Black was serving as Attorney General when transferred to the State Department by President Buchanan.

William M. Evarts served as Attorney General in the cabinet of President Johnson.

Walter Q. Gresham served for a time as Postmaster General and as Secretary of the Treasury in the cabinet of President Arthur.

Richard Olney was transferred from head of the Department of Justice to the State Department by President Cleveland.

John Sherman served as Secretary of the Treasury during the administration of President Hayes.

Elihu Root served as Secretary of War in the cabinet of President McKinley.

Philander C. Knox was Attorney General in the cabinet of President McKinley.

Daniel Webster, Walter Q. Gresham and John Hay died in office. Abel P. Upshur was killed February 28, 1844, by an explosion of a gun on the United States vessel of war *Princeton*. Robert Lansing resigned on demand of President Wilson.

BIOGRAPHIES OF SECRETARIES OF STATE

JOHN JAY

JOHN JAY—Secretary of Foreign Affairs, from March 4, 1789, to March 21, 1790. Born in New York city, December 12, 1745. Son of Peter and Mary (Van Cortlandt) Jay. Educated at King's (now Columbia) College. Married, April 28, 1774, Sarah Livingston. Died May 17, 1829, at Bedford, New York.

1774—Member Continental Congress.
1776—Member Provincial Congress of New York.
1777—Chief Justice of New York.
1777—President Continental Congress.
1779—Minister to Spain.
1781—Member Peace Commission.
1782—Secretary of Foreign Relations.
1789—Secretary of Foreign Relations under the Constitution.
1790—Chief Justice of the United States.
1794—Envoy Extraordinary to Great Britain.
1795—Governor of New York.

The Jays were of French Huguenot descent. The ancestors of the American branch of the family fled from France on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Augustus Jay, the first of the family to come to America, settled in New York in 1686. Peter Jay, the father of the future statesman and jurist, was a wealthy merchant of New York city, who had retired from active business before the birth of his gifted son.

In early youth John Jay was of a very serious disposition, fond of study. When he was eight years old he was sent to a grammar school at New Rochelle, near where his father had made his home. He progressed rapidly in his studies. French was the language usually spoken by the inhabitants of the village where the school was located and was generally used in his father's house, and young John early became proficient in that language, speaking and reading it with great fluency and correctness, an accomplishment which became of great assistance to him in later years when acting as one of the peace envoys at Paris, the meeting of the peace commission being held in that city, and the American commissioners being instructed by Congress to consult freely with the French ministers. When but a little more than fourteen years of age he entered King's (now Columbia) College, from which he was graduated in 1784.

He had early determined upon the law as his life profession, and not long after leaving college he became a clerk in the office of one of the prominent lawyers of the village, doing all the drudgery usual to such a position in those early days. He was early remarkable for his strong

reasoning powers, comprehensive views, application, firmness of mind and the power of forcible writing, and these characteristics impressed themselves on his tutors in law.

His public life began in 1773, when he was made secretary of the Royal Commission appointed to settle the disputed boundary question between New York and Connecticut, and lasted, without intermission, until failing health induced him to retire to private life in 1800. On April 28, 1774, while still acting as secretary of the Royal Boundary Commission, he married Miss Sarah Livingston, the youngest daughter of William Livingston, afterward famous as the Revolutionary War Governor of New Jersey. She was a woman of great beauty and culture, possessing literary tastes and abilities. She proved of great help to him during the whole of his after life, encouraging and sustaining him when the dark days of calumny and detraction came.

When the struggle between the colonies and the mother country came, Mr. Jay threw himself heart and soul into the patriot cause. He was among the first in New York to urge active measures in resistance to the encroachments of the British Parliament on the rights of the colonies, and so prominent did he become through his writings that he was placed on the famous Committee of Fifty-one. At one of the early meetings of this committee he presented a memorial and a series of resolutions urging that a congress, composed of delegates from all the colonies, be held to take into consideration the state of the whole country, and to devise plans for a union of the efforts at resistance. This was the first authoritative suggestion for a general congress, and it eventuated in a meeting held at Albany, New York, out of which grew the Continental Congress which piloted the country through the Revolutionary War, and established the Confederation of States.

To this first Continental Congress Jay was sent as one of the delegates from New York, having been unanimously chosen by his fellow-citizens. This is the Congress of which John Adams said: "Here for the first time were gathered together from the different colonies representatives of every shade of opinion." When organized the first regular business transacted by the Congress was the appointment of a committee to prepare an address to the people in which should be stated the rights of the colonies in general. Jay was a member of this committee and assisted in drafting the report. In the debate which followed the submission of the report to Congress he took an active part, establishing himself as a vigorous debater. The views he presented and enforced by his logical reasoning were finally adopted as the views of the Congress. It was during this debate that Patrick Henry made his famous speech in which he said: "I am not a Virginian! I am an American!" being the first declaration of a national spirit among the colonists.

Mr. Jay was also a member of the second Continental Congress. In

this Congress, as a member of the committee, he drafted the address that was issued to the people of Canada, warning them that the oppressive measures being enacted against the colonies, if permitted to be successful, would later be made to apply to Canada, and urging the Canadians to unite with the colonies, thus making all America one in opposition to the demands of the mother country.

Some of the delegates to this Congress were in favor of immediate resistance, but Mr. Jay took ground in favor of making one more appeal to the king and the people of England, and so great was his influence that he won Congress to his views, and the appeal was made, Jay being its author. Of this appeal Mr. Jefferson said it was the production "of the finest pen in America." The purity of its style, its lofty sentiments and impressive eloquence made a great impression both in this country and in England.

Mr. Jay was also the author of the appeal made by this Congress to the people of Jamaica and Ireland. The object of the address was to explain to the people of those countries the cause of the cessation of trade, and incidentally to make friends for the colonies in Jamaica and Ireland. He was also a member of the secret committee to correspond with the friends of the colonies in Great Britain and other countries, his colleagues being Franklin, Harrison, Johnson and Dickinson. He served on a number of other important committees raised by the Congress, all giving evidence of the high regard in which he was held by the members, notwithstanding his comparative youth.

In 1776 he was a member of the Provincial Congress of New York. It was this Provincial Congress that instructed the New York delegates in the Continental Congress to sign the Declaration of Independence. The next year he was a member of the committee appointed to draft a constitution for the state of New York, and during the deliberation of the committee he strongly urged that the constitution should provide for voting by ballot. This was the first move in this country looking to the substitution of the secret ballot for the old system of *viva voce* voting at elections.

Under the new constitution of New York Mr. Jay was appointed Chief Justice of the newly established Supreme Court. In 1778 the legislature, desiring his services in the approaching session of the Continental Congress, elected him a delegate, declaring by resolution that a "special case had arisen" justifying his appointment as delegate without his vacating his office as Chief Justice. Owing to some disagreements with some of the members of the Congress, Henry Laurens, of South Carolina, resigned as president of the Congress. Stormy scenes followed this action of Mr. Laurens. Mr. Jay was elected to the vacancy, and served with great distinction, and to the entire satisfaction of the delegates, until he was appointed minister to Spain, in September, 1779.

The main object of his mission to Spain was to secure financial and other help for the colonies in their struggle against Great Britain. The mission proved to be practically a failure owing to the diplomatic habit of the Spanish to delay action, and to the further fact that the demands of Spain were such Mr. Jay would not consent to grant. While he was still in Spain hoping for some more favorable turn of events Mr. Franklin sent for him to join him in Paris, as there were some prospects of peace negotiations.

Proceeding to Paris he there joined Mr. Franklin as one of the peace commissioners on the part of the colonies. Almost at once Mr. Jay took the lead in the preliminary negotiations, and although hampered by the instructions of Congress strenuously refused to follow the advice and counsel of the French ministry. When the papers were exchanged between the American commissioners and Mr. Oswald, the leading commissioner on the part of Great Britain, Mr. Jay discovered the commission of Mr. Oswald was to treat with the United States as colonies and not as an established government, but he was authorized to concede, in the first article of the treaty, their independence if the American commissioners insisted on it. Mr. Jay promptly and energetically refused to treat on any such terms, declaring the negotiations and the treaty must be between independent sovereignties—in other words, that the envoys should meet on equal terms, and as equals. He boldly announced that the United States were an independent nation by their own act, and needed no formal recognition of their independence in a treaty. All this was against the advice of the French minister, but Mr. Jay was obstinate; he would treat on his own terms or not at all.

The British envoy returned to London and obtained a new commission in which the American states were recognized as being independent sovereignties. This action of Mr. Jay was taken without consulting Mr. Franklin, who was sick at the time, and without awaiting the arrival of Mr. Adams, the third commissioner, who was detained in Holland. Mr. Jay determined upon another bold step. He early saw that France and Spain were endeavoring to delay the making of a treaty, in hopes they might gain some advantage, and he at once determined to treat direct with Great Britain, regardless of the advice of the ministers of France and Spain, and of the instructions of Congress to take no step without the approval of the French minister.

At the first meeting with the British envoy, after his receiving his new commission, Mr. Jay handed him a plan for a treaty, and its terms were quickly accepted. This was the great treaty of 1783. It was a great diplomatic triumph for America. The effect in France was highly complimentary to the skill of the American commissioners. M. Vergennes, the French prime minister, in speaking of it, said the English had rather bought a peace than made one, that their concessions exceeded anything believed possible. Lecky, the English historian,

says: "It is impossible not to be struck with the skill, hardihood and good fortune that marked the American negotiations. Everything the United States could, with any show of plausibility, demand from England they obtained; and much of what they obtained was granted them in opposition to the two great powers by whose assistance they triumphed." Of the services of Mr. Jay, John Adams, one of the commissioners, wrote: "The principal merit of the negotiations was Jay's. A man and his office were never better united than Mr. Jay and the commission of peace. Had he been detained in Madrid, as I was in Holland, and all left to Franklin, all would have been lost."

On the conclusion of his duties in connection with the peace negotiations Mr. Jay returned to America, reaching New York on July 24, 1784, after an absence of five years. He was welcomed by the citizens of New York with great pomp and pageantry, and the freedom of the city was presented to him in a gold box. Two months before his arrival Congress had appointed him Secretary of Foreign Affairs. This office had been created in 1781 and first filled by Chancellor Livingston. The position, under the circumstances following the conclusion of peace with Great Britain, was one of great importance. Congress readily yielded to Mr. Jay's direction in all matters relating to our intercourse with foreign powers. He became, in reality, the executive head of the Confederation.

One of the questions that were proving very troublesome at that time was the navigation of the Mississippi River, which Spain controlled. The negotiations with Spain were left solely in the hands of Mr. Jay, unlimited powers being given him by the decisive vote of seven states to five to negotiate a treaty.

Mr. Jay was among the first of American statesmen to recognize the inadequacy of the continental system, and he strongly urged the necessity for a more complete union of the states, with stronger powers given to the central government. He was not a member of the convention which framed the Constitution, but was a member of the convention called in New York to pass upon the question of ratification. At first a large majority of the people of the state were opposed to its ratification, and Mr. Jay issued an address to the people which had a most astonishing influence, and was mainly instrumental in securing the final consent of the convention to the ratification of the Constitution. While the question of the ratification of the Constitution was before the people of the various states, Mr. Jay, with Mr. Hamilton and Mr. Madison, wrote that series of remarkable political papers known as "The Federalist," Mr. Jay being the author of six of the papers.

When General Washington became President he offered Mr. Jay his choice of the federal offices and he selected the chief justiceship. At the earnest request of President Washington Mr. Jay continued to act as Secretary of Foreign Affairs until the arrival of Mr. Jefferson from

France, and he so served in the cabinet of President Washington until March 21, 1790.

During his short service as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States few important cases came before the court for adjudication, but among them were some that in the decision of the questions involved the court set its seal on the powers of the court under the Constitution by rulings that have been followed ever since.

In 1792 Mr. Jay was nominated for Governor of New York. He received a large majority of the popular vote, but the canvassing board, which was under the influence of Governor Clinton, took advantage of some slight irregularities in the method of transmitting the returns to Albany from three of the counties and threw out the votes of those counties, electing, by this means, Governor Clinton.

By 1794 our relations with Great Britain and some of the continental powers of Europe became complicated and President Washington appointed Chief Justice Jay a special envoy to negotiate a treaty of commerce with Great Britain. The treaty he succeeded in negotiating is now admitted to have been a masterpiece of diplomacy on his part, but when it was published in this country it awakened a storm of indignation, Mr. Jay being burned in effigy in many of the cities and towns. In Boston, on the fence surrounding the residence of one of the most influential citizens, was long maintained a placard showing the feeling of the community. It read: "Damn John Jay! Damn every one that won't damn John Jay! Damn every one who won't put lights in his windows and sit up all night damning John Jay!"

Of this treaty the late President Roosevelt, in his book "Winning of the West," said:

> Jay's treaty was signed late in 1794 and was ratified in 1795. The indignation of the Kentuckians almost amounted to mania. They denounced the treaty with frantic intemperance and even threatened violence to those of their own number, headed by Humphrey Marshall, who supported it; yet they benefited much by it, for it got for them what they would have been absolutely powerless to obtain for themselves—that is, the possession of the British posts on the Lakes. In 1796 the Americans took formal possession of these posts, and the boundary line in the Northwest as nominally established by the Treaty of Versailles became in fact the actual line of demarcation between the American and British possessions. The work of Jay capped the work of Wayne. Federal garrisons were established at Detroit and elsewhere, and the Indians who had already entered into the Treaty of Greeneville were prevented from breaking it by this intervention of the American military posts between themselves and their British allies. Peace was firmly established for the time being in the Northwest, and our boundaries in that directions took the fixed form they still retain.

In 1795 Mr. Jay was elected Governor of New York and served until 1800. In 1800 President John Adams nominated him for his old place as Chief Justice, but owing to his failing health the offer was declined. At the close of his last gubernatorial term Mr. Jay retired to private life, making his home on a farm near New York city.

THOMAS JEFFERSON

THOMAS JEFFERSON—Secretary of State from March 22, 1790, to December 31, 1793. Born April 2, 1743, at Shadwell, Albemarle county, Virginia. Son of Peter and Jane (Randolph) Jefferson. Educated at William and Mary College. Married, January 1, 1778, Mrs. Martha Skelton. Died at Monticello, Virginia, July 4, 1826.

1763—Justice of the Peace for Albemarle county, Virginia.
1769—Member Virginia House of Burgesses.
1775—Delegate to the Continental Congress.
1776—Elected a member of Joint Commission to France; declined.
1776—Member of the Virginia Legislature.
1779—Governor of Virginia.
1781—Elected a member of the Peace Commission; declined.
1782—Elected a member of the Peace Commission; accepted.
1783—Member of the Continental Congress.
1784—Minister to France.
1790—Secretary of State.
1797—Vice President of the United States.
1801—President of the United States.
1805—President of the United States.

The ancestors of Thomas Jefferson were among the earliest settlers of Virginia. His father, Peter Jefferson, had but limited opportunities to secure an education, but by his own unaided efforts in the pursuit of knowledge became one of the influential men of the colony, and was held in high esteem by his fellow-colonists.

Thomas was born on his father's estate in Albemarle county, Virginia, locally known as "Shadwell." At the early age of five years he began his school life, displaying an eager desire for learning and a persistence in application to his studies. When nine years of age he began the study of Latin, Greek and French, the latter proving of especial help to him in his later career as minister to France.

His father died in 1757, leaving a large family of children, but he was able to provide liberally for each one of them, giving to each a fine estate. Thomas received the plantation of Shadwell, on which he was born, and Monticello, which was his favorite home and where he died.

In 1760, at the age of seventeen years, he entered William and Mary College, remaining in that institution for two years, displaying the same eagerness for learning and the same industry in acquiring knowledge so characteristic of his days at school. At college he developed the talent for writing so conspicuous in his after career. It was while he was a student at William and Mary he became an adept at violin playing, a recreation he enjoyed throughout his long and busy life. His college life was just at the time when the colonies were in a fever of excitement over the aggressions of the king and Parliament, and young Jefferson was sedulous in attending the sittings of the Virginia House of Burgesses, paying the closest attention to all the arguments pre-

sented to the House, especially to those presented by Patrick Henry and others of his way of thinking in regard to the troubles, thereby imbibing the earnest patriotism he displayed throughout his entire career.

After leaving college he studied law and began the active practice of his profession at Williamsburg. It was while he was thus practicing his profession that he began to write on political topics for publication, taking the side of the colonies. His writings were characterized by such clearness, force and originality that they early attracted the attention of his fellow-citizens, and at the early age of twenty-six years he was elected in 1769 a member of the House of Burgesses. There he took a decided and prominent part in all the discussions in regard to the acts of the king and of the Parliament, not speaking much himself but supplying others with arguments.

He was one of the eighty-eight members of the House of Burgesses who signed the compact not to import or purchase certain specified articles of British merchandise so long as the tax levied on the colonies remained in force. It was this compact which so angered the Royal Governor that he dissolved the assembly.

The agitation in the colonies continued to increase, and as early as 1772 there began to be talk that armed resistance might eventuate. In March, 1773, Mr. Jefferson was selected to draft a series of resolutions asking the assembly to appoint a committee of correspondence with the other colonies for the purpose of formulating a plan of united opposition.

In August, 1774, the memorable convention was held at Williamsburg, in which the first active steps looking toward eventual independence were taken. Mr. Jefferson was elected a member of the convention, but owing to a severe sickness was unable to be present. He sent, however, to the convention a declaration of what he deemed should be the stand taken by the colonies, recommending armed resistance and retaliation. The convention deemed his resolutions too drastic and extreme, but it caused them to be printed and distributed. It was in this paper submitted to the convention by Mr. Jefferson the doctrine was for the first time declared that there should be no taxation without representation, which later became the keynote of the colonial resistance.

This convention elected delegates to the first Continental Congress. Mr. Jefferson was not among the delegates elected and remained a member of the Virginia Legislature, where he was one of the most active in pushing forward all patriotic measures. In all the measures before the Virginia Legislature looking to active and energetic resistance to Great Britain Mr. Jefferson always took the lead, while he kept up at the same time a voluminous correspondence with other patriots. He was an earnest advocate of the resolutions offered by Patrick Henry for the state to arm and prepare for active war.

In May, 1775, he was elected a delegate to the Continental Congress.

He was but thirty-two years of age, but his reputation as a forcible and effective writer of political papers had preceded him, and five days after he took his seat he was made a member of the committee appointed to prepare a report on the "cause of taking up arms against England." The intention was to present a report that would justify the colonies in the eyes of other nations. Mr. Jefferson wrote a part of the report, and it was acknowledged by his fellow-members to be the most forcible part. It was clear, bold and felicitous in style and added greatly to his reputation as a writer.

A few days later he was appointed, together with Franklin, John Adams and Richard Henry Lee, to prepare a reply on the part of the colonies to the resolutions of Lord North, pretending to offer a modification of the grievances complained of. To Mr. Jefferson was assigned the duty of preparing this reply, and it stands today as one of the strongest expositions of the right of a people to grant or withhold their own money, and to inquire as to its proposed application before granting a tax, ever issued by any people. It was the adoption of this report by the Continental Congress that cut off forever all hope of reconciliation and continued union with the mother country.

Mr. Jefferson was elected a member of the committee to draft a declaration of independence, and, having received the highest number of votes, became chairman of the committee. That immortal document was the work of his brain. Thus, in active service in Congress of less than nine months, he was selected to draft three of the most important papers ever submitted to a body of citizens—an exposition of the causes inducing the colonies to resort to armed resistance; a reply to the specious resolutions of Lord North, and the immortal Declaration of Independence, thus putting the seal of immortality upon his name.

His term of service in the Congress expired on August 11, 1776. He had notified the legislature of Virginia that he would decline a new election, but that body gave him an unanimous election notwithstanding. He adhered to his resolution, however. The main reason for his declining further service in Congress was his desire to take part in the formation of a constitution about to be submitted for the state of Virginia. In September, 1776, Congress elected him one of the joint commission to France, but he declined this high honor for the same reason which led him to refuse a re-election to Congress.

In October, 1776, he took his seat in the Virginia Legislature, where his labors for his native state surpassed in importance and future effect those of any other member. His first act was to introduce a bill for the reorganization of the judicial system of the state and the establishment of courts of justice. He was made chairman of the committee to consider his bill, and his labors were incessant. The report made by him was unanimously adopted and the system he thus brought into active life has been the model on which the judicial systems of all the other states have been organized.

Among his other work during that session of the legislature he introduced and secured the passage of an act repealing the law of entail, a law Virginia had inherited from the mother country. He also advocated a law forbidding foreign slave trade, and in this he led all the world in a movement for suppressing that iniquitous traffic. He was also chairman of the committee to prepare a new code of laws for the state. He advised the emancipation of all slaves born in Virginia after the passage of the act introduced for that purpose; he advocated the abolition of the church establishment, devised a systematic plan for education and for the establishment of religious freedom. A mere recital of these great acts shows how much Virginia and the world are indebted to Mr. Jefferson.

In 1779 he was elected Governor of Virginia. At that time there was great excitement over the treatment accorded by Great Britain to Americans who had been taken prisoners during the war. Governor Jefferson at once addressed himself to the task of forcing a better treatment. In Virginia were a number of British prisoners captured by General George Rogers Clark at Vincennes, among them being Lieutenant Governor Hamilton. Governor Jefferson ordered these men treated just as American prisoners were treated by the British. This action was highly commended by General Washington and was productive of good results.

While Mr. Jefferson was governor of the state Benedict Arnold led an expedition into Virginia, and the Governor matured a well-devised plan for his capture by some daring mountaineers. The plan promised full success and only failed owing to Arnold hastily sailing away.

In 1781 Mr. Jefferson was elected by the Continental Congress one of the commissioners to proceed to Europe to negotiate a treaty of peace with Great Britain, but he declined to accept. The appointment being tendered to him again the next year, he accepted, but before he could sail word was received that a preliminary treaty had been signed by Jay, Adams and Franklin.

In 1783 he was again made a member of the Continental Congress. His most distinguished service in this Congress was his report on the currency, a report which later formed the basis of our currency system. In 1784 he was sent to France to represent the United States. As minister to France his position was very onerous, owing to the disturbed condition of affairs in that country, it being on the eve of the revolution which overturned the French monarchy. While he was absent in France the Constitutional Convention met and prepared that instrument for submission to the people. Mr. Jefferson saw little in the instrument to commend but much to censure, and in his correspondence with his friends in America strongly opposed its ratification. He saw great danger in the office of President, and wrote to one of his friends, "I wish that at the end of the four years they had made him forever ineligible for a second term."

The new government under the Constitution was organized while he was absent from the country. He was at Paris when President Washington nominated him for Secretary of State, that designation having just been given to the department created by the act of July 27, 1789. The nomination was made on September 25 and promptly confirmed the next day, and a commission was at once issued to Mr. Jefferson. He did not arrive in America until the latter part of the following November.

It required much urging to induce him to accept the place in the cabinet, but he finally entered upon the discharge of the duties of the office March 22, 1790. One of his first acts of importance after assuming the duties of the office was to submit to Congress a report on the question of coinage. A citizen of England had submitted a proposition to furnish the United States with a supply of copper coinage. In his report Mr. Jefferson held the doctrine that coinage being an act of sovereignty it should not be submitted to another sovereign; that to exercise it in a foreign country would not only be inconvenient but without a precedent. He strongly urged the establishment of a mint at home.

The position of Secretary of State at the time Mr. Jefferson filled that office was an exceedingly trying one from many causes, chiefly because of the troubles in Europe. The French revolution was then in its first full tide of success, and because of the help extended to this country during our War for Independence, the French revolutionists arrogantly demanded from the American government open hostility to Great Britain and open freedom for all French cruisers and privateers in American ports. It required all the diplomacy and statesmanship of Mr. Jefferson to steer the country through the troubled waters. At first all his sympathies were with the French, and he was inspired with a most intense hatred to Great Britain, but in after years he changed his attitude very materially. In 1823, in a letter to President Monroe about the wisdom of promulgating what has since been called the Monroe Doctrine, Mr. Jefferson said we should most sedulously cherish cordial relations with Great Britain.

There was constant friction in the cabinet of President Washington, especially between Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, and, provoked by the rejection by Congress of his report on the commerce and navigation of the United States, he tendered his resignation as Secretary of State, and retired from that office on December 31, 1793, although urged by the President to remain.

After leaving the cabinet he returned to his home at Monticello, which at once became the center of political activity, for he was still regarded as the foremost politician of the country. It was there the great Republican party was formed as against the Federalists, Jefferson believing the tendency of the Federalists to be toward a strong, centralized government that would eventually result in the overthrow

of the rights reserved by the Constitution to the states and to the people.

In 1796 he was the candidate of the Republicans for the presidency. Under the Constitution as it then stood the person receiving the greatest number of electoral votes became President, and the one receiving the second highest number Vice President. The choice of the electors resulted in making John Adams President and Mr. Jefferson Vice President. For four years he presided over the Senate with dignity and impartiality, and in 1800 was again the candidate of the Republicans for the higher office. The electoral vote was a tie between Mr. Jefferson and Aaron Burr. After a number of ballots the House of Representatives elected Mr. Jefferson.

The war with Tripoli, the purchase of Louisiana, and the exploring expedition of Lewis and Clark were the three great events of his two terms as President. The troubles in Europe continued to require the very highest wisdom and diplomatic skill to keep the country from being involved in war with both France and Great Britain, and that war was avoided was largely due to the efforts of Mr. Jefferson.

At the age of sixty-six he finally retired to private life. His home at Monticello became an American Mecca for philosophers, statesmen and politicians not only of this but of all countries. It was while he was thus in retirement he saw the full completion of one of his favorite dreams—the completion and opening of the University of Virginia. He was so proud of this achievement that he caused to be inscribed on his tombstone that he was the "father of the University of Virginia."

During the month of June, 1826, he suffered greatly from an attack of dysentery, and on July 1 was confined to his bed. The end came about two o'clock on the morning of the fourth, just fifty years after the adoption of the Declaration of Independence.

EDMUND RANDOLPH

EDMUND RANDOLPH—Attorney General from February 2, 1790, to January 2, 1794; Secretary of State from January 2, 1794, to August 20, 1795. Born August 10, 1753, at Tazewell Hall, near Williamsburg, Virginia. Son of John and Ariana (Jennings) Randolph. Educated at William and Mary College. Married, August 29, 1776, Miss Betsey Nicholas. Died at Carter Hall, Virginia, September 12, 1813.

1775—Aide-de-camp on staff of General Washington.
1776—"Mustermaster" for Williamsburg District.
1776—Member Virginia Convention.
1776—Attorney General of Virginia.
1779—Member Continental Congress.
1780—Member Continental Congress.
1786—Governor of Virginia.
1787—Member Constitutional Convention.
1789—Attorney General of the United States.
1794—Secretary of State.

The ancestors of Edmund Randolph were among the most influential of the Virginia colonists. Both his grandfather and his father served as attorney general of the colony under appointment by the king. The Randolph family was famous for oratorical ability. Peyton Randolph, an uncle of Edmund, was long regarded as the first orator in Virginia and without a superior in the whole country. Edmund became a student at William and Mary College, and from the beginning of his college career took high rank as an orator, a reputation he retained until the last day of his life.

After leaving college he studied law with his father, and almost from the day of his admission to the bar took rank among the ablest and most successful lawyers of the commonwealth. He began his active life just as the agitation in the colonies over the acts of the British Parliament was fast leading the people to the point of armed resistance. His father espoused the cause of the king and Parliament, and went to London, where he died a few years later. At the time of his father's removal to London Edmund was twenty-one years of age. He refused to follow his father, and became one of the most active and eloquent champions of the cause of the colonies. When the war came he joined the army under General Washington, and was appointed an aid-de-camp on the staff of the general. In November, 1776, he was given leave of absence from the army, owing to the death of his uncle, Peyton Randolph, who, at the time of his death, was one of the most distinguished members of the Continental Congress.

Congress tendered him the appointment as "mustermaster" for the Williamsburg District, and about the same time he was elected a member of the Virginia Convention. He declined the lucrative office of "mustermaster" tendered him by Congress to accept, without pay, that given him by the people of Virginia. Mr. Randolph was the youngest member of that famous convention, being only twenty-three years of age, but he was soon one of the most active and influential. Notwithstanding his youth he was made a member of the committee appointed to prepare a declaration of rights, the most important committee raised by the convention. At the close of the convention the Virginia Assembly elected Mr. Randolph attorney general of the state, and the people of Williamsburg elected him mayor of the town. For a time he filled both offices. He was the third of his family to serve Virginia as attorney general, his father and his grandfather having been commissioned by the king to that office.

While acting as attorney general of the state he continued in the general practice of his profession. His success at the bar was very great, few important cases being heard and determined without his appearing on one side or the other. In 1779, while still serving as attorney general, he was elected to the Continental Congress. He remained in Congress but a few months, resigning because of the press-

ing duties of his office of attorney general. In 1780 he was again elected to Congress, and held his seat until 1782, when he again resigned.

In May, 1785, he was present at the consultations held at Mount Vernon and Alexandria which resulted in the famous meeting at Annapolis to take into consideration the commerce of the country, a meeting which eventuated in the Convention at Philadelphia which drafted the constitution for a "more perfect Union." In November, 1786, he was elected Governor of Virginia, and as such governor attended the Constitutional Convention in 1787. In the Convention he served on a number of the important committees, and took a prominent part in the various discussions. He was not satisfied with the Constitution as finally drafted and accepted by the Convention, and refused to sign it.

After the Convention adjourned he changed his mind, and in the Virginia Convention, called to pass upon the question of ratification, he became one of the most earnest and ardent champions of ratification, preferring it to disunion, or a longer struggle with a government under the inefficient Articles of Confederation. It was largely through his influence the Constitution was ratified by Virginia, the margin in its favor being only eleven votes. Later it was charged he obtained this ratification by suppressing a letter from Governor Clinton, of New York.

The first Congress held under the new Constitution, by an act approved September 24, 1789, established the judicial courts of the United States. The act provided there should be appointed by the President "a meet person, learned in the law," to act as Attorney General. President Washington at once tendered this position to Mr. Randolph. He was confirmed and commissioned on September 26, two days after the act creating the office was approved, but he did not enter upon the discharge of its duties until February 2, 1790.

Although the Attorney General at that time was not the head of an executive department, President Washington called Mr. Randolph into all consultations, having great confidence in his ability as a lawyer, and in his patriotism. At that time there was a most intimate friendship between the two men, Mr. Randolph having acted for the General in a trust capacity while he was absent as head of the army.

The act establishing the judicial system had been the cause of much friction in Congress, especially in the House of Representatives, and the House requested Mr. Randolph to revise it. His report has been classed as one of the ablest papers of the kind ever presented to Congress. He had to adapt the whole judiciary machinery of the country to meet the exigencies of the time, a work that was very onerous and required the activities of a very astute mind.

The Attorney General was not required to reside at the seat of government and was permitted to continue in the practice of his pro-

fession, but the labor of putting into effect the judicial system was so arduous that Mr. Randolph was compelled to retire from the active practice, and as the salary of the office was too small to maintain his family he had to resort to accepting into his office students to make both ends meet.

There were not very many important cases in which the government was interested before the courts during the service of Mr. Randolph as Attorney General. The most important was the celebrated case of *Chisholm v. the State of Georgia.* The question at issue was the suability of a state. It was a new question under the Constitution and aroused an intense feeling. Mr. Randolph argued the case before the Supreme Court of the United States, and so cogent and powerful were the arguments he presented that the court unanimously gave a decision against the state. This decision eventuated in the adoption of the twelfth amendment to the Constitution.

In the cabinet counsels Mr. Randolph displayed as much courage in giving his convictions on the questions brought before the members by the President as did Mr. Hamilton, and frequently clashed with that distinguished statesman. Mr. Madison at one time said that Mr. Randolph controlled the administration. When the question arose as to what should be the attitude of this country in the war then prevailing between France and England, Attorney General Randolph took strong ground in favor of the enforcement of a strict neutrality, and prepared the proclamation issued by President Washington, a proclamation that has had a greater influence in moulding international law than any other single document of modern times. One of the latest English writers on international law says the policy of the United States in 1793 constitutes an epoch in the development of the usages of neutrality, and represents the most advanced opinions as to what the obligations of neutrality are.

During the continuance of the agitation over the actions of Genet, the minister of the French Republic, Mr. Randolph, at the request of President Washington, visited several of the states to observe and report on the condition of public sentiment. On the resignation of Mr. Jefferson as Secretary of State, the President asked Mr. Randolph to assume the duties of that office. It was a position of great difficulty at that time. One of the first acts of the new Secretary was to insist that the President should demand of the French government the recall of M. Genet, and it was through his persistence the country finally got rid of that disturbing element.

Secretary Randolph also urged the appointment of an envoy extraordinary to negotiate a commercial treaty with Great Britain. The President desired to send Mr. Hamilton on this mission, but Secretary Randolph strenuously opposed the selection, not from hostility to Hamilton, but on the ground that the New York statesman had always been regarded as extremely friendly to England and his appointment would

arouse distrust in France. He suggested John Jay, Chief Justice, for the place and he was finally appointed.

It devolved upon Secretary Randolph to prepare the instructions for Mr. Jay and to carry on with him the necessary correspondence during the long and tedious negotiations, keeping him at all times well informed as to the changes of public sentiment. For thus sending an envoy to negotiate with Great Britain, President Washington was violently assailed by some of the papers of the country that were friendly to France. To these attacks Mr. Randolph replied in a series of thirteen letters under the signature of "Germanicus." So strong were these letters and so clear and comprehensive in their statement of the motives of the President that they gave a fatal blow to American Jacobinism.

Troubles with the representative of the French Republic multiplied. Fauchet, who had succeeded Genet, undertook to ship gunpowder to France under passports of the United States. For this violation of the law and assumption of authority, he was roundly taken to task by Secretary Randolph, and was given to understand that the administration was not disposed to submit to a repetition of the conduct of Genet.

The treaty negotiated by Mr. Jay was considered by the President and his cabinet, Secretary Randolph taking strong grounds against its ratification by the President unless certain modifications should be accepted by the British government. It was while this matter was pending an expose came which resulted in driving Mr. Randolph out of the cabinet and darkening all his future life.

In March, 1795, the French corvette, *Jean Bart,* was captured by an English cruiser. Among the papers found on board were a number of despatches from Fauchet to the French government, some of them seriously compromising Mr. Randolph. In giving an account of the issuance by President Washington of a proclamation against those engaged in the "Whiskey Rebellion" in Western Pennsylvania, M. Fauchet used the following language concerning Mr. Randolph:

> Two or three days before the proclamation was published, and of course, before the cabinet resolved on its measures, the Secretary of State came to my house. All his countenance was grief; he requested a private conversation. It was all over, he said to me; a civil war is about to ravage our unhappy country. Four men by their talents, their influence and energy may save it. But, debtors of English merchants, they will be deprived of their liberty if they take the smallest step. Could you loan them instantaneously funds to shelter them from English persecution?

These letters were sent to the British minister at Philadelphia, who showed them to Mr. Wolcott, Secretary of the Treasury. He immediately communicated with the other members of the cabinet, and it was determined to send a pressing request for the President (who was then at Mount Vernon) to return at once to Philadelphia. When President Washington arrived in Philadelphia the French despatches were shown to him. After carefully considering them the President sent for Secretary Randolph and handed them to him asking for an explanation. In-

stead of offering an explanation the Secretary tendered his resignation, which was at once accepted.

Fauchet was then at Newport, preparing to sail for France. Mr. Randolph hastened to that place and compelled the Frenchman to give him a certificate completely exonerating him. But the stigma on his name was never wholly dispelled. From other sources it was later learned that M. Fauchet was impecunious, and it was believed the letter to his government was framed up to secure money from his government under cover of using it to purchase the influence of Mr. Randolph.

After his retirement from the office of Secretary of State it was charged he had misused and failed to account for a large sum of money entrusted to him to meet the expenses of our foreign representatives. He indignantly denied the charge and offered to submit the matter to the adjudication of the comptroller of the treasury. That officer gave judgment against him for a sum in excess of fifty thousand dollars. To pay this he sacrificed his own fortune and that of some of his friends. Although he paid over to the treasury nearly one hundred thousand dollars, owing to a failure to discharge all the interest claimed, he is still carried on the books of the Treasury Department as being technically a defaulter. Many years later the whole matter was investigated by some experts and the impression reached that the decision of the comptroller was wrong, and Mr. Randolph had been made to pay over the large sums while in fact he was not indebted to the government a dollar, nor had he misused any of the funds entrusted to him.

On retiring from the cabinet Mr. Randolph returned to Richmond and resumed the practice of his profession. He was engaged in many important cases, among them being the defense of Aaron Burr on his trial for treason.

TIMOTHY PICKERING

TIMOTHY PICKERING—Postmaster General from August 19, 1791, to January 2, 1795; Secretary of War from January 2, 1795, to December 10, 1795; Secretary of State from December 10, 1795, to May 12, 1800. Born July 17, 1745, at Salem, Massachusetts. Educated at Harvard College. Married, April 8, 1776, Miss Rebecca White. Died at Salem, Massachusetts, January 29, 1829.

1775—Judge of the Court of Common Pleas for Boston.
1776—Member General Court of Massachusetts.
1777—Adjutant General Continental Army.
1778—Quartermaster General Continental Army.
1789—Member Pennsylvania Constitutional Convention.
1791—Postmaster General.
1795—Secretary of War.
1795—Secretary of State.
1802—Chief Justice Essex Court of Common Pleas, Massachusetts.
1803—United States Senator.
1814—Member national House of Representatives.

The ancestors of Timothy Pickering settled in Massachusetts as early as 1630, and while none of them rose to distinction they were a sturdy race, standing well with the community. Timothy, the future soldier, cabinet minister, senator and representative in Congress, was born in Salem. He attended the schools of Salem until he was prepared to enter college. Entering Harvard College he graduated from that institution in 1763 with a fair average rank for scholarship. Leaving college he at once entered on the study of law and was admitted to the bar in 1768. He began a most successful career as a lawyer.

He took an active interest in the questions then in dispute between the colonies and the king and Parliament, and early joined a volunteer company of militia. In 1775 he was made colonel of a militia regiment. On receiving news of the battle of Lexington he marched his regiment to intercept the retreating British, but failed. He was an ardent student of military affairs, and about this time published a volume of observations on the management of militia, a work which attracted much attention.

While still colonel of militia he was appointed judge of the Court of Common Pleas for the Boston and Salem District, but gave most of his time to the affairs of the militia. In 1777 he joined the army under General Washington, who immediately tendered him the appointment of adjutant general. Mr. Pickering hesitated for some time about accepting this appointment, but finally yielded to the solicitations of the commander-in-chief. He served in this capacity until 1780, when he was made quartermaster general. In that position he rendered the most conspicuous service, proving by his energy, resourcefulness and executive ability the most competent quartermaster general the Revolutionary Army had during the entire war. It was his talents as head of the Quartermaster's Department that made possible the rapid moving of Washington's army to Yorktown. He accompanied the army in all its movements and his activity was tireless. He held the position of quartermaster general until 1778, when he resigned.

On leaving the army he became a citizen of Philadelphia, entering the commission business. This was not a business suited to his restless activity, and after a few years he gave it up and removed to Wyoming Valley. In 1789, when Pennsylvania decided to form a new constitution, Mr. Pickering was elected a member of the convention. He was always radical in everything he engaged in, and as a member of the Constitutional Convention rendered himself unpopular to a marked degree for the stand he took in regard to the treatment of the Indian tribes, being a warm friend and defender of the red men. Soon after the accession of General Washington to the presidency he employed Mr. Pickering to negotiate treaties with some of the Indian tribes. In this he was very successful, owing to the confidence the Indians had in him. For many years he exercised great influence with

the Indians, and it was believed he prevented an Indian outbreak on several occasions.

On August 12, 1791, President Washington appointed him Postmaster General on the resignation of that office by Samuel Osgood. In this position he rendered great service in organizing the postal service into a more efficient state than it hitherto had been. At that time the post-office was not an executive department, but was in the nature of an independent bureau. When Secretary Knox resigned from the War Department, President Washington transferred Postmaster General Pickering to the vacant place. Here again his energy and his previous experience were of great service, especially in supplying the small army scattered on the frontiers. He was largely instrumental in organizing the military academy at West Point. At that time the navy was under the jurisdiction of the War Department. The political troubles in Europe made it necessary that the United States should add materially to its naval strength. Secretary Pickering personally superintended the building of three famous frigates—the *Constellation*, the *Constitution* and the *United States*—and never were three vessels designed for war more thoroughly equipped.

Mr. Pickering remained at the head of the War Department until December 10, 1795, when he was transferred to the State Department. When Edmund Randolph resigned as Secretary of State, President Washington experienced some difficulty in filling the position. It was offered in succession to Patrick Henry and several others, but declined. Mr. Pickering had been acting as *ad interim* secretary from the resignation of Mr. Randolph in August, and not finding a suitable secretary President Washington, in December, transferred Mr. Pickering. He continued as Secretary of State during the remainder of the administration of President Washington, and was retained by President Adams until he was finally peremptorily removed in May, 1800.

Until after the final downfall of Napoleon in 1815 the position of Secretary of State in this country was a very trying one, calling for rare tact coupled with great firmness. The United States was too weak to go to war with either France or Great Britain, and both powers preyed upon our commerce and treated the American government with contemptuous indifference. A majority of the American people sympathized with the French and were correspondingly hostile to Great Britain, and it required great diplomatic skill to guide the country through the threatening storms. Secretary Pickering was a man of positive mind and of iron will. He was a radical Federalist in politics, and as such Federalist he was more hostile to France than to England. It has been claimed that it was mainly through his persistence and urging that President Adams waged the semi-war with France, in which our young navy won so much credit and finally forced France to adopt a more conciliatory attitude toward the United States.

Vans Murray, the United States minister to Holland, had been holding some unofficial communications with the French government. It was decided to send a commission to France, and it was felt the actions of Mr. Murray had complicated the situation by his unauthorized communications. One of Secretary Pickering's first acts was to call him to task in a sharp note, writing him that "no more indirect and unofficial communications, written or verbal, should be held with any person or persons whatever, as agents on behalf of France." Secretary Pickering carried on negotiations with France in a much sharper tone than had been done by his predecessor.

In 1800 Mr. Adams was a candidate to succeed himself and was opposed by Hamilton, the great leader of the Federalists. Some of the members of the President's cabinet were accused of secretly aiding Hamilton in his efforts to overthrow the President and much friction was the result. At last the President demanded the resignation of all the members except Mr. Wolcott, Secretary of the Treasury. With the exception of Mr. Pickering, they all complied promptly with the demand of the President. Mr. Pickering refused and was summarily dismissed, being the first occupant of a high office to be thus dismissed. The action of the President caused great excitement and called up the question as to the power of the President to remove the head of an executive department without the consent of the Senate, the consent of that body being required for his appointment.

At the time of his removal from office Mr. Pickering was heavily in debt, and some of his old friends in his native state came to his assistance financially. He returned to Massachusetts, settling at Danvers. In 1802 he was appointed chief justice of the Court of Common Pleas for the Essex District and was elected the next year to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy. He was elected as his own successor for a full term and served until March 3, 1811. In the Senate he rendered himself very unpopular with his fellow-members by his extreme radicalism as a Federalist and was burned in effigy in Philadelphia. Several grave charges were made against him and attempts were made to expel him from the Senate, but all failed. In 1811 he was defeated for re-election to the Senate, but in 1814 was elected to represent his district in the House and was re-elected for a second term. In his congressional career, both in the Senate and in the House, he was a bitter and unrelenting enemy of the two Adams. He was a voluminous writer, especially on political and agricultural topics.

JOHN MARSHALL

JOHN MARSHALL—Secretary of State from June 6, 1800, to March 5, 1801. Born September 24, 1755, at Germantown (now Midland), Virginia. Son of Thomas and Mary (Keith) Marshall. Educated at Westmoreland Academy. Married, January 3, 1783, Miss Mary Willis Ambler. Died in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, July 6, 1835.

1775—Lieutenant in Continental Army.
1777—Captain in Continental Army.
1781—Member Virginia Legislature.
1784—Member Virginia Legislature.
1787—Member Virginia Constitutional Convention.
1791—Member Virginia Legislature.
1795—Member Virginia Legislature.
1797—Envoy to France.
1799—Member national House of Representatives.
1800—Secretary of State.
1801—Chief Justice of the United States.

John Marshall's ancestors were of British descent, having emigrated to the United States from Wales. They were distinguished for intellectual strength and for force of character. John was the first of fifteen children born to his parents. He early evinced a strong love for English literature, especially for poetry and history. It is said that at the age of twelve years he knew by heart a large portion of the writings of Alexander Pope and was familiar with the writings of Dryden, Milton and Shakespeare. At the age of fourteen, after studying for a time under a private tutor, he was sent to the classical academy at Westmoreland, where he distinguished himself by his application to the acquisition of learning. At the age of eighteen he began the study of law, the profession that brought him so great distinction and honor in later life.

The troubles between the mother country and the colonies were brewing, and young Marshall was one of those who anticipated a call to arms. He enrolled himself in a company of militia, and in 1775 was appointed a lieutenant in a company in the regiment of which his father was major. In 1877 he was promoted to the captaincy of the company, and was with Washington at Valley Forge. He fought with Wayne at Stony Point and at Paulus Hook. For a time he served as deputy judge advocate of the army.

The term of enlistment of his company having expired he, with other officers, was ordered to Virginia for the purpose of organizing such troops as might be raised. Awaiting the tardy action of the Virginia Assembly he attended a course of law lectures by the eminent Chancellor Wythe. He was thus enabled the next summer to secure his admission to the bar. He continued with the army until January, 1781. Retiring from the army he began a most successful career as a lawyer. A few months after retiring from the army he was elected a member of the Virginia Legislature. In 1783 he removed to Richmond and rose rapidly in his profession, being counted among the most eloquent and convincing members of the profession in that city. One of the troublesome questions for the legal profession and the courts was the action of the legislature in regard to the collection of debts owing to citizens of Great Britain contracted before the Revolutionary War. By the treaty of peace it was agreed that no legal impediments should be

placed in the way of either party to the collection of debts incurred before the war.

The Assembly of Virginia notified the Continental Congress it would not regard the provisions of the treaty. In fact, during the continuance of the war it had passed an act cancelling all such debts on the part of the citizens of Virginia, and releasing them from the obligations of payment. The most celebrated of the cases arising under the treaty was that of *Ware v. Hilton.* Marshall appeared for the American debtors, and his argument is still regarded as one of the ablest expositions of the right of a sovereign state to release its citizens from monetary obligations to foreigners in time of war ever presented before any court.

He was twenty-seven years of age when he became a member of the Virginia Assembly, but took a leading part in all the discussions, especially those relating to measures to raise money with which to pay the troops. In 1784, although he had been a resident of Richmond for some time, his old constituents of Fauquier county re-elected him to the legislature, and in 1787 he was elected to the same position by the people of Richmond. In that year Virginia was called upon to elect delegates to a convention to take into consideration the ratification of the new constitution for a more perfect union of the states. A large majority of the people of Richmond were opposed to the ratification of the instrument, yet such was the popularity of Mr. Marshall, and the confidence the people had in his integrity and enlightened judgment, that he was elected a delegate to the Convention, although it was well known he was an ardent friend of the Constitution. Under the circumstances, and the intensity of the feeling at that time, this was a remarkable tribute.

Because of the abilities and high character of the members and the momentous interests involved, this was one of the most important conventions ever held in America. The opposition to the ratification of the Constitution was led by such men as Patrick Henry, George Mason and William Grayson, all renowned for their eloquence and wielding a great influence. The friends of ratification were led by Edmund Randolph, James Madison, Edmund Pendleton, James Innes and John Marshall, a coterie of great men. In all the discussions Mr. Marshall took a prominent and leading part, and he was called upon especially to reply to the arguments of Patrick Henry. His speeches in the Convention added greatly to his reputation and increased his influence in the state.

At the close of the Convention Mr. Marshall resolved to retire to private life and devote himself to the practice of his profession, but he was once more sent to the legislature. A majority of this body were unfriendly to the new Constitution, notwithstanding it had been ratified by the Convention chosen by the people, and they did what they could to embarrass the administration of President Washington and elected two senators distinctly hostile to the administration. Marshall,

in all the discussions, gave his ardent support to every measure intended to strengthen the new order of things. He had the highest confidence in President Washington and gave his administration a hearty support. He remained a member of the legislature until the spring of 1791, when he refused positively to accept another election.

In 1795 party feeling was very high, intensified by the indignation aroused by the recent treaty with Great Britain, negotiated by John Jay, and it became doubtful whether the Federalist candidate could be elected to the legislature. Mr. Marshall was among the few leading men of Virginia who defended the treaty. On the morning of the election of 1795, while he was engaged in the trial of an important case in court, his friends, without his knowledge, suddenly opened a poll for him, and he was triumphantly elected, notwithstanding there was a strong anti-Federalist majority in the county.

In 1797 the actions of Mr. Monroe, minister to France, satisfied the administration he could not succeed in negotiating a treaty with that country, and President Adams determined to send a new commission. On May 31 he appointed John Marshall, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney and Francis Dana as such commission. Mr. Dana declined and Elbridge Gerry was substituted. On leaving Richmond Mr. Marshall was attended for several miles by a large cavalcade of his fellow-citizens. When the members of the commission arrived at Paris the French directory refused to receive them, unless an apology were made for some of the passages in the address of President Adams to Congress. This, of course, was promptly and indignantly refused by the American envoys. Talleyrand was the French minister of foreign affairs, and sent an envoy to the Americans offering to smooth the way for a treaty if a certain sum of money were paid to Talleyrand personally and a large loan made to the French directory. To have made such a loan would have been a violation of the neutral position the country had taken as between France and England. It was this offer of Talleyrand that gave Mr. Pinckney the occasion to declare the United States would give "millions for defense but not one cent for tribute," a saying that stirred every American heart.

The matter of a treaty hung for weeks, the Americans refusing to either apologize for the President's speech, give the doucer to Talleyrand or to make a loan to the French directory. Worn out with the delay and the subterfuges of the French minister, the American envoys determined to address Talleyrand a letter, laying before him in explicit terms the object of their mission, and if the French government still refused to open negotiations to demand their passports and letters of safe conduct. The drafting of this letter to Talleyrand was given to Mr. Marshall, and it has ever been regarded as a model state paper.

Talleyrand complained that although the directory had not given them an audience they might have called upon him personally. Mr.

Marshall replied that it was not a matter of any concern whether they had an interview with the directory or not; that the Americans were perfectly indifferent on the subject. The commissioners then demanded their passports and letters of safe conduct. Talleyrand replied that as they had never been officially received they were not entitled to letters of safe conduct, and the only way for them to secure passports was to apply to the American consul as citizens of the United States. Mr. Marshall sharply told the French minister that the conduct of the French government was in violation of the laws and customs of civilized nations. Talleyrand again replied that the Americans were not in the character of foreign ministers, as they had not been officially received. To this Mr. Marshall spiritedly replied, saying that the ignorance of M. Talleyrand of the laws of nations was the only excuse he could offer for such a statement; that he derived his character of foreign minister not from M. Talleyrand nor from the French directory but from the United States, and that the United States only could deprive him of that character. This sharp reply to the French minister brought the passports and letters of safe conduct.

On his return to this country Mr. Marshall was received by great demonstrations on the part of the citizens, the story of Talleyrand's attempt to extort money having been published, awakening the widest indignation. Both houses of Congress united in giving him a public dinner. At this time President Adams offered him a seat on the Supreme Bench, but it was declined. In 1798 he was an unwilling candidate for Congress, but having been elected he took his seat at the opening of the session in December of 1799. It was not long until upon all questions involving the powers of the government, or the scope of the Constitution, he became a recognized authority. Of his powers as a logical and convincing debater many incidents occurred. He was, at one time, defending the action of the President on a certain matter. Albert Gallatin had been chosen by the opposition to reply to him, and for some time during the speech of Mr. Marshall took copious notes. As Mr. Marshall proceeded with his argument Mr. Gallatin ceased taking notes, and left his seat, going into the lobby. A fellow-citizen approached him and inquired if he did not intend to reply. He was curtly told that Mr. Marshall's arguments were unanswerable and no one could reply to them.

Congress adjourned on May 14, 1800. The day before the adjournment Mr. Marshall resigned his seat to take a place in the cabinet of President Adams, being the first instance of a member of Congress being appointed to a cabinet position. He had first been offered the war portfolio, but had declined it. He was nominated as Secretary of State on May 12 and was promptly confirmed the next day, but he did not actively assume the duties of the office until June 6. The troubles in Europe still continued to harass the United States, but as Secretary

of State, Mr. Marshall stood firm, notifying England and France that the United States were not answerable to them for such treaties as the President might see fit to negotiate with either of them; that the United States were an independent nation and must be treated as such. He remained as Secretary of State until the day after the inauguration of President Jefferson, although he had been nominated, confirmed and commissioned as Chief Justice of the United States on the preceding January 31 and had actually taken his seat on the bench February 4. A story has found its way into some histories that at midnight on March 3, 1801, Levi Lincoln, carrying in his hand the watch of Mr. Jefferson, entered the office of the Secretary of State and found him busy signing commissions, and pointing to the watch in his hand, notified Mr. Marshall he was no longer Secretary of State. The facts are that Mr. Marshall continued to act as Secretary of State until March 5, at the request of Mr. Jefferson.

While he was at the head of the State Department a new commission, consisting of Oliver Ellsworth, William Vans Murray and W. R. Davie, was sent to France. A treaty was signed September 30, 1800. It released forever the United States from the obligations of the treaty of alliance of 1778. The treaty was something of a disappointment in some of its details, but it relieved the country for the time being of all apprehension of war.

The appointment of Mr. Marshall as Chief Justice marks an epoch in the history of the country. The government was still in its trying-out period. Many questions under the Constitution as to the rights of the people and of the states and of the powers of the general government remained unsettled, and the Supreme Court as the final arbiter was to make momentous decisions. The opinions of Chief Justice Marshall, while on the bench, and the decisions of the court under him have always been regarded as wise and fortunate for the country. No judge or lawyer ever enjoyed a greater reputation as a constitutional jurist than Mr. Marshall.

Mr. Marshall served as Chief Justice until his death, July 6, 1835. While still on the bench of the Supreme Court he served as a member of the Virginia Convention called in 1829 to revise the constitution of that state. He also wrote a voluminous life of General Washington. His health began to fail in 1835 and he went to Philadelphia for medical treatment and died in that city.

JAMES MADISON

JAMES MADISON—Secretary of State from May 2, 1801, to March 3, 1809. Born at Port Conway, Virginia, March 16, 1751. Son of James and Nelly (Conway) Madison. Educated at Princeton College. Married, in October, 1794, Mrs. Dolly Todd. Died June 29, 1836, at Montpelier, Virginia.

1774—Member of the Virginia Committee of Safety.
1776—Delegate to Virginia Convention.
1777—Member of the Virginia Legislature.
1778—Member of the Governor's Council.
1780—Member of the Continental Congress.
1784—Member of the Virginia Assembly.
1787—Member of the Continental Congress.
1787—Member of the Constitutional Convention.
1788—Member of the Virginia Convention on the Constitution.
1789—Member of the national House of Representatives.
1799—Member of the Virginia Legislature.
1801—Secretary of State.
1809—President of the United States.
1813—President of the United States.

The ancestors of James Madison were not among the wealthy planters of Virginia, but were in independent and comfortable circumstances. His mother was on a visit to her parents, residing at Port Conway, when James was born. The family residence was in King and Queen county, and it was there young James began his school life. He was first sent to a school taught by a Scotch clergyman, and then for some years was under the care of a private tutor until fitted to enter college. From some cause not known he chose Princeton College, in New Jersey, instead of William and Mary, then the great educational institution of Virginia. He entered Princeton in 1769, at the age of eighteen years. He shortened his college term by taking a two years' course in one, but he remained at the college for another year for the purpose of studying Hebrew, his mind being inclined toward the ministry as a profession. Later he studied law.

He early became an enthusiastic advocate of the rights of the colonies as against the king and Parliament, and in 1774 became a member of the famous Virginia Committee of Safety. Two years later he was sent as a delegate to the Virginia Convention—the convention which adopted resolutions instructing the Virginia delegates to the Continental Congress to vote for independence. In that convention he took a prominent part and was a member of the committee appointed to frame a Bill of Rights. In the committee and in the convention he took strong grounds in favor of absolute freedom in religion, opposing the doctrine of mere toleration. The article in the Bill of Rights on this subject that was finally adopted was the work of Mr. Madison.

He was a member of the first state assembly under the new constitution, but was defeated for a second term because he refused to adopt the practice then universally followed of treating the voters with liquor. He set himself resolutely against this practice as demoralizing and destructive of the real spirit of liberty. In 1778 he was elected by the assembly a member of the Governor's Council, a position of dignity, if not of much importance.

In 1780 he was elected a delegate to the Continental Congress. In that body he at once became prominent and influential, serving on

many of the most important committees. Of that Congress, Hamilton, Wilson, Ellsworth and Madison were the strong men and were usually found working together on all important matters. In the debates Mr. Madison displayed a close and intimate knowledge of English constitutional law and its application to the colonies setting up a new government. He was chairman of the committee appointed to draft the instructions for Mr. Jay, just appointed minister to Spain, and insisted the instructions should require Mr. Jay to contend for the free navigation of the Mississippi River.

Under the law of Virginia, as it then stood, a delegate to the Continental Congress could not serve two consecutive terms, so Mr. Madison was left off the delegation elected in 1784, but was immediately chosen to represent his county in the Virginia Assembly. By this time he had come to be recognized as one of the political leaders of the state. He had early recognized the weakness of the Confederation in not giving power enough to Congress, and in the assembly he used every effort to strengthen the hands of Congress.

He prepared the resolution sent out by the assembly to the other states inviting them to send delegates to a meeting to be held at Annapolis to take into consideration the commercial interests of the whole country, and was himself appointed one of the Virigina delegates to that meeting. The meeting was held in September, 1786, but failed of accomplishing anything more than sending an address to the people of the whole country, prepared by Alexander Hamilton, urging that commissioners be appointed in each state to a future meeting to be held in Philadelphia. This was the convention which framed the Constitution, and Mr. Madison was one of the Virginia delegates.

In the legislature he reduced the old colonial statutes to a body of laws suited to the changed conditions. He contended, but without success, for the faith of treaties and the payment of the debts as provided for in the treaty of peace with Great Britain. That treaty provided there should be no legal impediment placed in the way of collecting debts incurred prior to the outbreak of the war in 1775 on either side. The Virginia Legislature notified Congress it would disregard that provision of the treaty. Mr. Madison held the state should not take such action, but the whole matter be left to Congress; he contended that Congress was the party to the treaty and not the state, which had surrendered its treaty-making power to the Congress.

In 1787 he was again sent to the Continental Congress. In this Congress he was ever foremost in demanding the exercise of the strongest power on the part of Congress. His ideal was still the union before the states; the whole before the parts. He saw the weakness of the government under the Articles of Confederation, and was ready to advocate a stronger union, with greater power granted to the federal government.

Mr. Madison has been called the "father of the Constitution," and he deserved the title. No man worked harder or with more success to bring the public mind to a serious consideration of the necessity for reorganizing the government and to prepare the way for the adoption of a new system of union, if the states were to be held together in any bonds of amity. He was the real leader of the Virginia delegation in the Constitutional Convention, although the delegation included General Washington and Governor Randolph. The Convention was divided into two parties—one wanting only to repair the Articles of Confederation, strengthening them in some of the weak places, but leaving the states practically separate and wholly independent. The other saw that to patch the old garment would only be to make matters worse instead of better and favored an entire new system. Mr. Madison was one of the leaders of the second party.

His labors in the Convention were incessant, and he displayed great skill in smoothing away the doubts of the timid and in building up a sentiment for a new union. Much of the Constitution as it was finally adopted was his work. Nor did his labors cease with the adjournment of the Convention. He threw himself heartily into the work of educating the people to the point of accepting the new Constitution. He wrote twenty-nine of those famous papers in "The Federalist," and with Hamilton was foremost in the battle for the Union. In his own state of Virginia a strong opposition to the Constitution soon disclosed itself, led by such men as Patrick Henry and George Mason. They wanted a second convention called to alter and amend the proposed Constitution. With Mr. Madison it was that Constitution or none.

He was a member of the convention called in Virginia in 1788 to consider the Constitution, and in the convention took the laboring oar for prompt ratification. He was always upon his feet; always ready with arguments, or to combat those presented by the opposition. The struggle was long, but Mr. Madison and his aids won by a vote of eighty-nine against seventy-eight.

Immediately after the close of the convention he returned to New York, where Congress was in session, and resumed his labors in that body. In October, 1788, the Virginia Legislature met to elect two members of the new Federal Senate under the Constitution. Mr. Madison was one of the candidates, but the legislature was under the domination of Patrick Henry, who was so bitterly opposed to the Constitution that he determined the senators elected should be such as could be depended upon to throw every possible obstacle in the way of the success of the new administration, and so Mr. Madison was defeated. To prevent Mr. Madison from being elected as a member of the new House of Representatives a district was made that it was believed he could not possibly carry. Mr. Madison, however, made a most thorough and complete canvass of the district, suffering much from hardships encountered.

The cold was so intense that his ears and nose were frozen. He was successful by a decided majority, defeating James Monroe, the candidate of the opposition.

March 4, 1789, was the day fixed for the assembling of the new Congress, but it was several days before a quorum was present for the transaction of business, and then came the inauguration of President Washington. Two days after the inauguration Mr. Madison introduced a measure to raise a revenue by duties on imports and a tonnage duty on all vessels entering our ports. It was a hard fight, but victory remained with Mr. Madison. By almost common consent the direction of business before the House was intrusted to Mr. Madison. He was one of the most zealous of those who insisted in a discrimination against Great Britain in our navigation laws. This he insisted should be done for the dignity no less than for the material interests of the United States. He frequently declared he had no fear of a commercial warfare. He introduced the various bills creating the several executive departments.

When these measures came up for discussion the question arose as to the power of the President to remove an officer without the consent of the Senate. Mr. Madison contended the power of removal rested alone with the President, a construction that has obtained ever since. Among his other measures was one submitting twelve amendments to the Constitution. Ten of them were finally ratified by the states.

He led the opposition to Hamilton's scheme for the establishment of a United States Bank, but cordially supported many of the other recommendations of the Secretary of the Treasury. He defeated the location of the permanent capital on the banks of the Delaware by a shrewd parliamentary trick. The House had passed a bill providing for the location on the Susquehanna, Pennsylvania giving ten miles square; the Senate amended by substituting the Delaware. This the House agreed to, when Mr. Madison moved to amend by providing that the laws of Pennsylvania should continue in force in the district until Congress should pass new acts. No one saw the necessity for this provision, but as it came from Mr. Madison the members thought there must be some point in it, and it was adopted. This necessitated the sending of the bill back to the Senate, and Congress adjourned the next day without any further action.

Mr. Madison's congressional career closed with the last session under the administration of President Washington, having served four terms. During his whole congressional service he enjoyed the confidence of President Washington, who frequently consulted with him on important measures. On the accession of Mr. Jefferson to the presidency he tendered to Mr. Madison the State Department. He was appointed and confirmed March 5, 1801, but did not take active control of the office until May 2 following, being detained in Virginia. He held the office

until the day before his own inauguration as President on March 4, 1809. During his entire service he was loyal to his chief. In fact, the President seemed to have a peculiar sway over him.

In his first inaugural address Mr. Jefferson outlined the foreign policy he would pursue in the following memorable words: "Peace, commerce and honest friendship with all nations; entangling alliances with none," and it was with this spirit Mr. Madison endeavored to conduct his high office. The Napoleonic wars were in full blast, and the diplomatic difficulties of the State Department cannot be better stated than in the words used by President Jefferson in his annual message to Congress in 1806, when he said, after reciting the fact that war vessels of other countries were on our coasts and in our harbors under color of seeking for enemies:

> New principles, too, have been interpolated into the law of nations, founded neither in justice, nor the usage or acknowledgment of nations. According to these a belligerent takes to itself a commerce with its own enemy which it denies to a neutral on the ground of its aiding the enemy in the war; but reason revolts at such an inconsistency, and the neutral having equal rights with the belligerent to decide the question, the interests of our constituents and the duty of maintaining the authority of reason, the only umpire between just nations, impose on us the obligation of providing an effectual and determined opposition to a doctrine so injurious to the rights of peaceful nations.

Mr. Madison's foreign policy, while acting as head of the State Department, was not very successful. The position was one of great difficulty at that time owing to the disturbed condition of affairs in Europe and to the further fact that each of the contending powers over there in turn attempted to prey upon American commerce. President Jefferson was a friend of peace, with all his leanings, at first, toward France, and he, with his Secretary of State, bent every effort to escape being drawn into armed hostilities, but the strong bias of the President in favor of France made this a difficult matter, as England made it an occasion of umbrage at every opportunity.

It was under the guidance of Mr. Madison as Secretary of State the treaty for the accession of Louisiana was brought to a favorable issue. This brought on some complications with Spain, and as we were already in diplomatic difficulties with that country over the settlement of certain spoliation claims committed during her war with her American colonies, the outlook for a time was not pleasing.

In 1808, and again in 1812, Mr. Madison was elected President of the United States. He had a very uneasy time of it during his first administration, owing to the continual aggressions of France and Great Britain, and before the end of his first term he was hurried into war with England by the aggressive influence of Henry Clay and other young members of Congress. The country was not prepared for war, and the result was that for two years our armies suffered several severe defeats, Washington being captured by the enemy and all the

public buildings burned, but on the ocean and on the lakes the victories were with our navy. As President he was unfortunate in the selection of a head for the War Department and of a commander-in-chief of the armies. It was through the neglect of the Secretary of War the way was left open for the British to land on Chesapeake Bay and capture Washington.

Mr. Madison eagerly seized upon every possible and impossible suggestion to secure peace, often to the humiliation of the country, and finally a peace was negotiated in December, 1814, without settling any of the disputed questions for which the war had been waged. After serving out his second term as President Mr. Madison retired to his country home, Montpelier, where he continued to reside until his death, June 28, 1836. His manuscripts were invaluable in preserving the history of the country during his long and active public life and were eventually purchased by the government.

JAMES MONROE

JAMES MONROE—Secretary of State from April 6, 1811, to September 30, 1814, and from February 28, 1815, to March 3, 1817; Secretary of War from October 1, 1814, to February 28, 1815. Born in Westmoreland county, Virginia, April 28, 1758. Son of Spence and Eliza (Jones) Monroe. Educated at William and Mary College. Married, February 25, 1786, Miss Eliza Kortwright. Died July 4, 1831, in New York city.

1777—Aide-de-camp to Lord Stirling.
1782—Member Virginia Assembly.
1783—Member Continental Congress.
1787—Member Virginia Assembly.
1788—Member Virginia Convention to Ratify Constitution.
1790—Member United States Senate.
1794—Minister to France.
1799—Governor of Virginia.
1803—Minister to France.
1804—Minister to Spain.
1806—Minister to England.
1810—Member Virginia Legislature.
1811—Governor of Virginia.
1811—Secretary of State.
1814—Secretary of War.
1815—Secretary of State.
1817—President of the United States.
1821—President of the United States.

From 1776, when he entered the Continental Army in the War for Independence, with hardly an interregnum, James Monroe was continuously in the public service until his retirement from the presidency March 4, 1825. He was one of that band of young men of Virginia who played so prominent a part in the early struggle of the colonies for independence and in the formation of our present form of

government. He came from a family of Scotch cavaliers, and his father was prominent in the affairs of Virginia when James was born on the family estate in Westmoreland county. At the time of his birth the colony was greatly agitated over the passage of the Stamp Act and over the other efforts of the British Parliament to take away the liberties of the colonies, and almost from his cradle he heard those matters discussed by his father and other patriot colonists, thus he was early filled with a zeal for liberty. His father was one of the signers of the Virginia remonstrance against the execution of the Stamp Act.

At the age of sixteen, only a short time before the actual beginning of the War for Independence, James entered William and Mary College, but gave more time to drilling with a military company than he did to his books. His public career began in 1776, when, with a number of other students of the college, he volunteered and joined the army under Washington. He was made a lieutenant in the third regiment of Virginia volunteers, and won the notice of General Washington at the battle of Trenton, where he was severely wounded. During the campaigns of 1777 and 1778 he served on the staff of Lord Stirling. The term of enlistment of his regiment having expired, he was sent to Virginia, with others, to take command of such troops as might be recruited, but owing to the failure of Virginia to raise additional troops he remained out of the service. He was greatly chagrined at this failure to get back into the service and seriously contemplated going to Europe to make an extended visit. He went so far in his preparations to leave the country as to secure from Mr. Jefferson a letter to Benjamin Franklin, who was then in Paris. He did not go, however, but began the study of law under the tutorage of Mr. Jefferson.

In 1782, at the age of twenty-four years, he was elected a member of the Virginia Assembly and was made a member of the executive council, but was not prominent in the discussions or labors of the assembly. In 1783 he was elected a delegate to the Continental Congress and took a prominent part in the discussion of all important measures. As a member of several of the leading committees he extended the circle of his acquaintance among the leading men of the country and enhanced his popularity at home. He was among those who recognized the weakness and inefficiency of the Confederate system, but was opposed to granting any additional powers to Congress that would in any way limit the authority of the states. He favored the granting of power to Congress to levy imports, but wanted the revenue collected by state authority and to accrue to the benefit of the states where collected.

He was not a member of the Convention of 1787 which framed the Constitution and strenuously opposed the ratification of that instrument by the people of Virginia. As a member of the convention called in Virginia to take action on the Constitution, he acted under the leadership of Patrick Henry and used all his influence to prevent favorable action, but notwithstanding his opposition to the instrument he was

among the first to take office under its provisions. He was a candidate for member of the first House of Representatives, but was defeated by James Madison. The majority of the Virginia Assembly was opposed to the Constitution and sent to the first Congress, as senators, Richard Henry Lee and William Grayson. Grayson died within a few months and Mr. Monroe was elected to the vacancy, taking his seat December 6, 1790, and served until May, 1794. He was a decided opponent of the Washington administration and was particularly hostile to Secretary Hamilton, voting and working against every measure recommended by the head of the Treasury Department.

He was a strong sympathizer with the French revolutionists and, while he was still a member of the Senate and notwithstanding his opposition to his administration, President Washington appointed him minister to France, thinking that his well-known friendship to the French revolution would make him acceptable to the French government and enable him to negotiate a favorable treaty. Minister Monroe's instructions, given to him by President Washington himself, were very minute and comprehensive. They were prepared by Edmund Randolph, Secretary of State, and much was hoped from his mission. He arrived in Paris just after the fall of Robespierre. When it was announced to the French National Convention that Mr. Monroe had arrived in Paris that body at once passed a decree to receive him in open convention. At this reception Mr. Monroe made a speech which later caused him much trouble and humiliation. Being published in this country it aroused great indignation. It was apologized for by his friends, who said that in his enthusiasm and being bewildered by the unusual and signal honor of being received in open convention, he overstepped his instructions thoughtlessly. His situation was a very difficult one and in later life he frequently referred to it as the most painful he had ever experienced. The censure bestowed on his speech in America mortified him greatly.

The delays in communication between the two countries made his position much more difficult than it would have been had speedy communication been possible, as events occurred so rapidly that conditions would be wholly changed before new instructions sent him could be received and acted on. Mr. Monroe interested himself greatly in behalf of the Marquis de Lafayette, who was then a prisoner of the Austrians, and in Madame Lafayette, confined in one of the Paris prisons. He supplied Madame Lafayette with money to meet her pressing necessities and, through his intervention and that of Mrs. Monroe, ameliorated greatly for her the hardships of prison life.

When Timothy Pickering became Secretary of State his animadversions on the conduct of Mr. Monroe were very severe and greatly irritated the sensitive Virginian. Monroe was soon superseded by G. C. Pinckney. The recall of Minister Monroe angered the French government and Mr. Pinckney was refused an official reception, being even

threatened with police surveillance. On his return to America Mr. Monroe published a pamphlet bitterly attacking the administration of President Washington.

In 1799 he was elected governor of Virginia, holding that office for three years. In 1801 information was received in this country that Spain had retroceded Louisiana to France. President Jefferson was exceedingly anxious to secure New Orleans and the mouth of the Mississippi River for this country and thus establish our right to navigate that stream. The navigation of the Mississippi River had long been a troublesome question and many attempts had been made to effect a satisfactory treaty with Spain, but all had failed. In the transfer of Louisiana to France President Jefferson saw his golden opportunity and at once despatched Mr. Monroe to France to negotiate a treaty for the purchase of New Orleans. Mr. Livingston, the American minister at Paris, had already been in communication with Napoleon, then First Consul, and a treaty for the purchase of the whole of Louisiana territory was practically concluded before Mr. Monroe arrived in Paris, but he was in time, however, to sign the treaty.

Mr. Monroe reached Paris just in time to take part in the final negotiations for the purchase of Louisiana. On April 11 Talleyrand had asked Mr. Livingston for an offer to purchase the whole of the territory. Mr. Livingston's authority only went to the purchase of New Orleans and an island in the Gulf. For these Livingston had offered twenty million francs. Mr. Monroe reached Paris the next day and before any further communication had been received from Talleyrand. John Bach McMaster, in his "History of the United States," thus tells of what took place:

> The day after Monroe reached Paris Barbe-Marbois, Minister of the Treasury, called. Marbois astonished Livingston by declaring that one hundred million francs and the payment of the debts due American citizens was the price of Louisiana. This would bring the cost to one hundred and twenty-five millions, for at twenty-five millions of francs Livingston estimated the debts. He pronounced the price exorbitant; Marbois admitted that it was, and asked to take back to St. Cloud an offer of eighty millions of francs, including twenty millions for the debts. Some haggling now took place; but on these terms the purchase was effected by the three instruments dated April 13, 1803.

The three instruments referred to were a treaty of cession, an instrument arranging the mode of payment, and one treating of the debts. These instruments were at once transmitted to President Jefferson. Of this Mr. McMaster says:

> Jefferson was greatly puzzled when these three instruments reached his hand. He had offered to buy an island for a dock yard and a place of deposit; he was offered a magnificent domain. He had been authorized to expend two million dollars; the sum demanded was fifteen. As a strict constructionist he could not, and for awhile he did not, consider the purchase of foreign territory as a constitutional act. But when he thought of the evils that would follow if Louisiana remained with France, and of the blessings that would follow if Louisiana came to the

United States, his common sense got the better of his narrow political scruples, and he soon found a way of escape. He would accept the treaty, summon Congress, urge the House and Senate to perfect the purchase, and trust to the Constitution being amended so as to make the purchase legal.

Thus it was by the enlarged statesmanship and persistence of Robert R. Livingston and James Monroe this magnificent domain became a part of the United States.

Mr. Monroe was also accredited to London and on the conclusion of the Louisiana matter went to England, but failed to accomplish anything there. Having purchased Louisiana, President Jefferson conceived a desire to also obtain possession of Florida and Mr. Monroe was sent to Madrid, but his mission was entirely fruitless. It was not until Mr. Monroe was himself President that Florida was finally secured for the United States. Mr. Monroe returned to America near the close of 1807. In 1810 he was once more a member of the Virginia Assembly and in 1811 was for the second time elected governor of Virginia. This office he relinquished in a few months to accept a seat in the cabinet of President Madison as Secretary of State.

Mr. Monroe had been the opposing candidate against Mr. Madison for the Republican nomination for President in 1808 and for some years there had been a coolness between them. When President Madison determined to get rid of Robert Smith, his Secretary of State, he requested Mr. Gallatin to sound Mr. Monroe on the question of taking the place he had determined to make vacant. Mr. Gallatin accordingly visited Richmond and conferred with Governor Monroe, and after some negotiation the governor signified his willingness to accept the office, and it was at once tendered him.

Governor Monroe had had large experience in dealing with diplomatic matters, but he could not successfully steer the administration through the breakers which surrounded the country. The United States had much to complain of against both Great Britain and France, but the bitterness was stronger against the former country. Mr. Monroe believed the tender of the State Department was an indication that the President intended to change his policy and that a rupture with France would follow, to which he was strongly opposed.

During the first three years of his administration President Madison made every effort to avoid war and to keep peace with both the contending powers of Europe, yet every step seemed only to make a war with Great Britain more inevitable. As Secretary of State Mr. Monroe was vigorous in defending the rights of neutral nations. In his communications with the French and British ministers to this country and in his instructions to our diplomatic representatives in Europe he insisted the rights of neutrals must be respected in the most complete manner and clearly defined what those rights were. In this he met the opposition of Mr. Gallatin, Secretary of the Treasury, who was for peace at any price.

The outbreak of the war with Great Britain brought added labors to Secretary Monroe and they were enhanced by the action of the New England Federalists. In that connection he permitted himself to become the unfortunate dupe of "Count Edward de Crillon," a French adventurer, who claimed to be in possession of certain letters given him by one John Henry, an agent of Canada, the letters involving several of the leading Federalists of the country. Secretary Monroe greatly disliked the Federalists and eagerly seized upon what he thought was an opportunity to destroy them politically and purchased the letters for the sum of fifty thousand dollars. The letters proved to be arrant forgeries. The Secretary of State was consequently made the subject of great ridicule.

The war with Great Britain was progressing in a bad way for the American armies, Dr. Eustis, Secretary of War, proving wholly incompetent for such a crisis, and at the request of the President he resigned his portfolio. Until the President could find a successor Mr. Monroe acted as Secretary of War *ad interim* for more than a month. During that time he recommended to Congress an increase in the number of major generals of the army and intimated to the President that he would like one of the places and to be put in command of the whole army. General Armstrong was nominated and confirmed as Secretary of War, and in sending to Congress nominations for the additional major generals placed the name of Monroe among them, but his name was finally withdrawn.

As Secretary of War General Armstrong proved as great a failure as had Dr. Eustis, permitting Washington to be captured and burned. His conduct of the campaign on the Northern frontier was also the subject of much harsh criticism. His resignation was asked for and promptly tendered. When Armstrong resigned Mr. Monroe wrote a letter to the President and claimed the vacant place. He was nominated and confirmed as Secretary of War, but continued to act as Secretary of State *ad interim,* that place not being filled.

As Secretary of War Mr. Monroe's administration was vigorous and efficient; the army was weeded of incompetent commanders; the Quartermaster and Commissary Departments were reorganized and the troops better fed and clothed. Discipline and order took the place of chaos and confusion. The enemy was driven back from Washington and Baltimore was saved. The conduct of Mr. Monroe during the battle of Bladensburg was the subject of many adverse criticisms at the time, but it appears that he alone of all the government officers then in Washington acted with energy, and had it not been for the refusal of one officer to obey an order given by Mr. Monroe, on the excuse that Monroe was not Secretary of War, the opinion has been expressed that Washington would have been saved from capture.

At the close of the war Mr. Monroe was nominated again and confirmed as Secretary of State, an office he had been filling as Secretary

ad interim for nearly five months. He continued to act as Secretary of State until the close of Mr. Madison's administration.

In 1816 Mr. Monroe was nominated by the Republican caucus for President, and was elected, taking his seat on March 4, 1817. Then began what has been politically known as the "era of good feeling," the country soon showing signs of quick recovery from the effects of the late war. He served eight years as President. At his second election he received every electoral vote but one. What has been considered remarkable during his entire two terms there was not a single break in his cabinet. The cabinet of President Monroe has always been regarded as one of the ablest the country has had. It consisted of John Quincy Adams, Secretary of State; William H. Crawford, Secretary of the Treasury; John C. Calhoun, Secretary of War; William Wirt, Attorney General, and John Smith Thompson, Secretary of the Navy, who was commissioned associate justice in September, 1823. At that time the Postmaster General was not considered a member of the cabinet.

During the two terms of Mr. Monroe as President the most serious matters coming before his administration were those in connection with the State Department. The close of the war with Great Britain left the commercial and manufacturing industries of the country almost prostrate, but they rallied soon after peace was declared and the country entered upon an era of prosperity which lasted until the great financial panic of 1836. There were some passages at arms between the State Department and Great Britain, and with Spain, that are more fully treated in the sketch of John Quincy Adams.

The defense of the Atlantic seaboard, the subject of internal improvements, the Seminole War, the purchase of Florida and the admission of Missouri as a state in the Union, were the most prominent features of his administration. The acquisition of Florida was a pet scheme with Mr. Monroe. President Jefferson had sent him to Spain in 1804 to attempt to negotiate with Spain for the cession of Florida, but he had met with failure. Soon after he became President he took it up again, and finally, when Mr. Adams, Secretary of State, let fall an intimation to the Spanish minister at Washington that it might happen in case Spain would not sell, the United States would be compelled to take Florida by force, if necessary, as a matter of defense, a treaty was concluded by which Florida was ceded by Spain.

During the administration of President Monroe the admission of Missouri into the Union caused great agitation and threats of secession were freely uttered both North and South. It was not an administration measure, but the administration was sorely troubled by it for some time. Internal improvements was another subject which proved a source of trouble. President Monroe vetoed the bill to build the Cumberland road on the ground of unconstitutionality, but suggested an amendment to the organic law giving power to Congress to con-

struct roads and other works of internal improvement would be a good thing for the country.

The one thing more directly remembered of his administration than anything else was his promulgation of what has since been called "The Monroe Doctrine," a doctrine giving notice to European governments that the United States would oppose any attempt on the part of a foreign nation to secure control of any territory in North or South America. This did not originate with him, but his administration gave it official utterance and sanction. John Quincy Adams, in a meeting with the British peace commissioners in 1814 to negotiate a treaty of peace, broadly intimated to the British commissioners that such would be in the future the policy of the United States.

After leaving the presidency Mr. Monroe retired to his Virginia home. Like his two immediate predecessors, his last days were clouded by pecuniary embarrassments and he finally went to live with his daughter, wife of Mr. Gouverneur, in New York city, where he died July 4, 1831. He was buried in New York, but on the one hundredth anniversary of his birth his remains were exhumed and reinterred, with great ceremonies, in Richmond, Virginia.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS—Secretary of State from September 22, 1817, to March 3, 1825. Born July 11, 1767, in the North Parish of Braintree (now town of Quincy), Massachusetts. Son of John and Abigail (Smith) Adams. Educated in Europe and at Harvard College. Married, July 26, 1797, Miss Louisa Catherine Johnson. Died in the capitol at Washington, District of Columbia, February 23, 1849.

1781—Secretary of Francis Dana, minister to Russia.
1784—Secretary to the American peace envoys.
1794—Minister to The Hague.
1796—Minister to Portugal.
1797—Minister to Prussia.
1802—Member Massachusetts Senate.
1803—Member United States Senate.
1809—Minister to Russia.
1814—Member American Peace Commission.
1815—Minister to England.
1817—Secretary of State.
1825—President of the United States.
1830—Member national House of Representatives.

No other American statesman has had so varied a public career as John Quincy Adams. He is the one man of history who apparently never had any idle time. His life was a busy one from his boyhood days until the hour when he was stricken down at his seat in the hall of the House of Representatives in Washington. No man ever assumed the office of Secretary of State better equipped at all points to discharge its manifold duties than Mr. Adams.

At the time of his birth his father was deeply engaged in the cause of the colonies, and was easily the leading man of the country. He had little time to devote to the education of his son, but he filled his young mind with the spirit of Americanism. John Quincy was but seven years old when, from the top of a high hill, he, in company with his mother, witnessed the battle of Bunker Hill. When but barely nine years old he became the post rider between the city of Boston and the farm where his mother resided, when the father was absent attending the Continental Congress. Those journeys to and fro left him but little time for study in the way of regular schooling, but even at this early age he was industrious in the pursuit of knowledge.

On February 13, 1778, his father embarked for Europe on a mission to interest the French king in the cause of the colonies. John Quincy was not quite eleven years of age, but he accompanied his father to Paris and was established in a school near that city. He had hardly got so established when his father was recalled to America and once more the boy crossed the ocean. It was at the age of eleven years and during his first journey across the Atlantic he began that wonderful diary that has proved such a mine of political history, a diary he continued to keep up until his death. Mr. John Adams had hardly arrived in America when he was again sent to Europe, and once more his son accompanied him.

At the age of fourteen he began his diplomatic career. In 1781 Francis Dana was sent on a mission to Russia. Passing through Paris he was so well pleased with young Adams that he offered him the position of his secretary, which was accepted. Being chosen for such a position at so young an age speaks of the confidence with which he inspired all who knew him. What is more remarkable than his selection is the fact that he was recognized by Congress in that position as secretary to the minister. He remained in Russia about one year and then traveled alone through some parts of Europe, spending a winter at Stockholm.

By this time the commissioners were in session in Paris, negotiating a treaty of peace with Great Britain, his father being one of the commissioners. He joined his father at Paris and was at once appointed one of the secretaries of the commissioners. He witnessed the signing of the treaty of peace, and on his father being appointed the first American minister to England, accompanied him to London. There he determined to return to America to complete his education. He did return, and entering Harvard College was graduated in two years. The bent of his mind was disclosed in his graduating thesis, the theme being "The Importance and Necessity of Public Faith to the Well-being of a Community." On leaving college he began the study of law and was admitted to the bar in 1790. He established himself in Boston and soon had a lucrative practice.

In 1791 he wrote a series of papers under the signature of "Publicola," replying to Tom Paine's "Age of Reason," which attracted much attention in this country and in Europe. Two years later, during the excitement caused by the actions of Genet, the envoy of the French Republic to this country, he issued a series of papers under the signature of "Marcellus," on the subject of neutrality, a series still classed as among the ablest yet written on that subject. These papers attracted the attention of President Washington, and he appointed Mr. Adams, then but twenty-seven years of age, as minister to The Hague.

All Europe was then in a tumultuous condition; the French revolution was disturbing the people in every continental country, and their victorious armies were overrunning many parts of the continent. Mr. Adams had just reached The Hague when Pichegrue, with a French army, marched into Holland, overturning the government and establishing the Batavian Republic. As American minister, and a minister of a republic, Mr. Adams was treated by the French conquerors with the most extreme cordiality. It was a dangerous situation, especially for so young a man, but Mr. Adams acted with the greatest prudence. While not curtly rejecting the overtures of the French, he kept from doing anything that would involve his country in any controversy. He remained quietly at The Hague, a close observer of events, pursuing an extended course of study and reading and in familiarizing himself with the usages of diplomacy.

While still at The Hague he was instructed to go to London to exchange the ratifications of the Jay Treaty, but through a number of vexatious delays did not reach England until after Mr. Deas, secretary of legation, had made the exchange. The British cabinet did not like Mr. Deas, and as there were still some points of difference between the two countries to be settled, it was sought by artful subterfuges to thrust upon Mr. Adams the character of a regularly appointed minister, but he was too shrewd. It was while he was on this visit he met Miss Louisa Johnson, whom he later married.

Toward the close of President Washington's second term he transferred Mr. Adams from The Hague to Portugal, but before his departure for Lisbon his destination was changed. His father had become President, and having a hesitancy about appointing his own son to a diplomatic position, he sought the advice of General Washington, who warmly urged the appointment, predicting a high diplomatic career for the young man. On this advice his father changed his destination, sending him to Prussia. He successfully negotiated a treaty of friendship and commerce with Prussia, and continued to watch closely the developments of European politics. In February, 1801, his father, who was just about to retire from the presidency, recalled him to America.

On his return he again began the practice of law in Boston. The judge of the district court appointed him a commissioner in bank-

ruptcy, but President Jefferson promptly caused his removal. In 1802 he was elected by the Federalists to the Massachusetts Senate, but within forty-eight hours after the opening of the session he gave an evidence of his independence in politics by proposing that the Republican minority be represented in the council. In February, 1803, he was elected to the United States Senate.

In that body his own party was divided by factions, and the Republicans were exceedingly bitter against both factions. Mr. Adams was independent in thought and action, hence had a hard time in the Senate, and was repeatedly assailed by the Republicans and by members of his own party, but they could not crush him. Great Britain was still seizing American vessels on the seas and impressing from them American citizens. Mr. Adams introduced into the Senate a series of resolutions strongly condemnatory of the attitude and action of Great Britain, and requesting the President to demand and insist upon the restoration of all the property seized, and that an end be put to all interference with American vessels engaged in lawful trade. The resolutions were adopted, but their introduction further weakened him with his party, as Massachusetts was strongly Federal, and the Federalists were, in the main, opposed to any action which might involve the United States in a war with England. He supported the non-importation and embargo acts of the administration, and this so angered his party in his state that the legislature, several months before the regular time for electing a senator, chose his successor. Feeling this as an insult, Mr. Adams promptly resigned from the Senate.

On June 26, 1809, President Madison nominated him minister to Russia. He thus returned to St. Petersburg, where he began his diplomatic career as secretary of legation nearly thirty years before. He remained in Russia four and a half years, being treated during his whole stay with the most distinguished consideration. He won a notable diplomatic victory over Napoleon, a victory that was one of the causes of the war declared against Russia by the French emperor. The victory consisted in having the Russian ports opened to American ships, a measure strongly opposed by Napoleon, as it would in a measure vitiate his Berlin and Milan decrees.

In 1814 he was appointed one of the commissioners to negotiate a treaty of peace with Great Britain, just as his father had been appointed in 1782 for a similar purpose. He stood firm during the whole of the negotiations, refusing to conclude a treaty unless Great Britain would agree to forever forego the right of search and impressment, but finally signed the treaty. It was during these negotiations that Mr. Adams made the significant remark which foreshadowed the Monroe Doctrine. The British envoys were insisting on the United States relinquishing to the Indians large territories to be placed under the protection of England, claiming this was necessary for the protection of

Canada. Mr. Adams met this claim by tritely saying England might as well consent to the annexation of Canada to the United States at that time as at any other, for the American policy in the future would be the exclusion of Europe from the American continents. This proposition of Mr. Adams staggered the British commissioners and they quickly abandoned their demand.

In 1815 Mr. Adams was appointed envoy extraordinary to the Court of St. James, a position his father had held immediately after the treaty conceding the independence of America. He remained but a short time in London. He visited Paris just after Napoleon returned from Elba. He was in Holland when the victorious armies of the French had overrun that country; he was in Russia when Napoleon invaded the frozen north, and now, from a window of his hotel, he witnessed the great emperor reviewing his troops the next morning after his return from his first exile.

Having been appointed Secretary of State by President Monroe, Mr. Adams sailed for home June 15, 1817. He was nominated for head of the Department of State on March 5, 1817, and was confirmed on the same day, but did not enter upon the discharge of the duties of the office until the following September 22. He held the office until he surrendered it on March 3, 1825, to become the head of the nation.

The heaviest burdens of President Monroe's administration fell upon the Department of State, and were borne by Mr. Adams. We were having trouble with Spain over the boundaries of Louisiana and over our desire to get possession of Florida. As a consequence of these two subjects of dispute there was an ominous cloud of war between the two countries. The Florida matter was complicated by the action of General Jackson, in command of the American troops in the South. He invaded Florida with an armed force, captured one or two towns, and executed two traders. Secretary Adams defended these actions of General Jackson as being necessary for the defense and protection of the Southern states against Indian depredations. He was ever a believer in strong measures. Spanish diplomacy has always been built on the dilatory order, but Secretary Adams was insistent. He demanded the full and complete settlement of the Louisiana boundaries, and for Florida he significantly remarked to the Spanish minister, it was a matter for Spain to determine: if she would not sell she would have to run the risk of losing Florida, as she had lost so many other colonies.

This stand was a risky one in diplomacy, but Secretary Adams had abundant courage and was willing to take the risk. The Spanish minister fairly begged for some concessions, but Mr. Adams was unyielding, and finally a treaty was concluded, which was promptly ratified by the Senate. After the ratification, Secretary Adams discovered that a mistake had been made as to the date of certain land grants made by the king of Spain, and that three grants, covering more than a million

acres, supposed to have been cancelled by the treaty, were of a date that would exempt them from the treaty terms. He at once called the attention of the Spanish minister to this, and requested a sub-convention, including the cancellation of the grants in question, which was refused. Fortunately for the United States, however, Spain refused to ratify the treaty, and then Secretary Adams notified the Spanish minister that Spain must ratify such a treaty as the United States dictated or take the consequences. This blunt statement speedily brought Spain to terms and we got Florida.

Mr. Adams had some stormy scenes with the British minister. The English ministry had been accustomed to taking high and supercilious grounds when dealing with the young nation, but in Secretary Adams they found more than their match in such methods. One of the questions at issue between the two countries was the permanent settlement of Oregon. Early in the century the mouth of the Columbia River had been taken possession of by America and a settlement formed. During the War of 1812 this settlement was broken up by the British, but by the terms of the Treaty of Ghent was to be restored to the United States. The British premier received information that the United States intended to establish a permanent settlement there, and through the British minister at Washington entered a protest, claiming such a settlement would be in direct violation of the convention of October, 1818.

In calling upon Secretary Adams, the British minister, as was usual in those days, took a haughty tone. Mr. Adams took down the volume containing the convention referred to and read the paragraph mentioned, and then said, in his bluff way: "Now, sir, if you have any charge to make against the American government for a violation of this article, you will please make it in writing." The British minister blustered and demanded to know if the Secretary refused to discuss the question with him except through written communications. To this Secretary Adams bluntly replied that he well knew the rights of the minister and would respect them; that he also knew how to maintain his own rights. Thus a new element was introduced into the American method of diplomacy.

The views of Secretary Adams were broad and grand. He wanted the world to become familiar with the idea of considering our proper dominion to be the continent of North America. He suggested to our minister at Madrid that it was scarcely possible to resist the conviction that the annexation of Cuba to our federal republic would some time be indispensable, and in 1823 he audaciously told the Russian minister that the United States would contest the right of Russia to any territorial establishment on this continent.

His capacity for continuous labor was exemplified in his exhaustive report on weights and measures, made while so much of his time was

engrossed by our foreign relations. He worked on this report for four years, and it still remains a solid and magnificent monument of research and reflection. While General Jackson was being assailed for his conduct in the Seminole War, Secretary Adams alone of all the cabinet defended his course, and to emphasize his friendship for the general he gave a grand ball in Washington at which more than a thousand guests were present, General Jackson being the guest of honor.

In 1824 Mr. Adams, William H. Crawford, Secretary of the Treasury; Henry Clay, Speaker of the House of Representatives, and General Jackson, then a member of the United States Senate, were opposing candidates for the presidency. The vote in the electoral college stood: Jackson, 99; Adams, 84; Crawford, 41; Clay, 37. No one having received a majority the election was thrown into the House of Representatives, where Mr. Adams was chosen. While General Jackson had received a plurality of the votes in the electoral college Mr. Adams had received a much larger popular vote than any of the other candidates.

During his administration as President for four years the country was more than usually prosperous; all difficult questions as to our foreign relations had been settled while he occupied the office of Secretary of State, and there was no domestic crisis to affect injuriously our domestic business. Under his administration more commercial treaties were negotiated than during the whole of our previous history. He earnestly advocated the adoption of an enlarged system of internal improvements. He was a candidate to succeed himself, but the personal popularity of General Jackson had been increasing during the four years and he was triumphantly elected.

Naturally Mr. Adams believed his defeat would end his public career, but the most glorious part of it was to come. In December, 1831, he took his seat in the national House of Representatives, and remained a member of that body until his death in February, 1848. No sketch of Mr. Adams would be complete without containing something of his long and finally successful fight for the right of petition. The fight arose over the presentation of petitions relating to slavery.

Soon after taking his seat in the House, Mr. Adams presented some petitions asking that slavery be abolished in the District of Columbia. In presenting the petitions he said he believed the subject was one over which Congress had jurisdiction, but that he was not in favor of its exercise. The petitions kept pouring in, Mr. Adams frequently presenting as many as three hundred in a single day, and on one day the number reached five hundred. The friends of slavery grew tired of this flood of petitions, and in 1836, on a report of a committee, the House adopted a rule that all petitions on the subject of slavery should be laid on the table without reading and without the liberty of debate.

It was then the great fight began, Mr. Adams claiming the rule to be an interference with constitutional rights. On every possible

occasion he renewed his motion to repeal the rule. In January, 1837, he presented a petition from some of his own constituents and declared he intended to read the petition as a part of the speech he intended to make. He was interrupted by cries of order and the Speaker tried to stop him, but he went on, his voice rising higher and higher until he fairly shrieked out the concluding sentences. Resolutions censuring him were offered but never brought to a vote.

One day, after presenting a number of petitions and seeing them laid on the table, under the rule, he paused a moment, and then said to the Speaker that he had in his hand a petition of such unusual character that he did not know whether it would come under the rule, and asked the Speaker to decide the point. The Speaker requested Mr. Adams to state the character of the petition, and was informed it purported to be signed by eleven slaves. He could get no further in his explanation owing to the angry cries of the opposition. A resolution was at once presented declaring Mr. Adams to be guilty of a breach of decorum and deserving of the severest censure of the House. In the preamble of the resolution it was set forth that in presenting a petition purporting to be signed by slaves, Mr. Adams was guilty of "giving color to the idea" that slaves could petition Congress. Speech after speech was made, Mr. Adams standing on his feet from one o'clock until seven, saying if he was guilty of the charge made against him he was not entitled to a seat among honorable men.

At last he began his reply by stating he had not presented any such petition, but had asked the Speaker to rule as to whether it could be presented, hence the resolution charged him with an offense he had not committed. Referring to the statement of the resolution that the petition asked for the abolition of slavery, he said if the gentleman who drafted the resolution had read the petition he would have found out it was one of an entirely different character, as it opposed the abolition of slavery. This was in the nature of a bombshell, and threw the House into an uproar. Mr. Adams continued by saying: "If I understand the resolution of the honorable gentleman from Virginia, I am charged with having committed a new crime, one that has not hitherto been known to our statutes, the crime of 'giving color to an idea.'" This double *entendre* was too much for the House and it broke into loud peals of laughter.

There was another dramatic scene in this long fight for the right of petition. In January, 1842, he presented a petition from some citizens of Haverhill, Massachusetts, asking for a dissolution of the Union. Resolutions were at once drawn up and presented for the expulsion of Mr. Adams. His reply in his own defense furnished another of those climaxes for which he was famous. In the course of his speech he called for the reading of the first paragraph of the Declaration of Independence. "Read it! Read it!" he shouted, "and see what it says of the

right of the people to reform, alter or dissolve their government!" When the passage was read he shouted: "Read it again!" This swept the House off its feet. The discussion of the resolutions continued for several days, and then they were laid on the table. In 1844 he was finally successful and the "gag rule," as it was called, was repealed.

Notwithstanding his persistent fight for the right of petition the House recognized his great abilities and his sterling honesty of purpose and in all emergencies looked to him to find a way out of the difficulty. Such an occurrence took place at the opening of the twenty-sixth Congress, which brought out to the full his resources in overcoming difficulties and his command of parliamentary situations. The seats of five of the delegation from New Jersey were contested. According to the custom prevailing the clerk, in calling the roll for the organization of the House, should have called the names of those holding the certificates of election, leaving the House, when organized, to deal with the contests. On this occasion, however, the clerk, on reaching New Jersey in the roll call, announced the fact that five of the seats were contested, and as he did not deem himself competent to decide the contests he had determined to not call any of the names from that state.

A scene of great confusion followed. Motions were made requiring the clerk to call the names of those holding the certificates, but he refused to entertain the motions. He thus blocked all efforts to organize the House. On the fourth day of the confusion a number of members went to Mr. Adams and asked him to find some way of escape from the difficulty. When the clerk began to reiterate his statement as to why he would not call any of the names from New Jersey, Mr. Adams sprang to his feet, and cries of "Hear John Quincy Adams!" went up from every part of the chamber. He said: "We degrade and disgrace ourselves, we degrade and disgrace our constituents and our country. We do not, and can not organize, and why? Because the clerk of the House, the mere clerk whom we create, whom we employ, and whose existence depends upon our will, usurps the throne and sets us, the representatives, the vice regents of the whole people, at defiance, and holds us in contempt! He refuses to call the roll! It is in your power to compel him to call it, if he will not do it voluntarily."

He was interrupted by a statement that the clerk had said he would resign before he would call the roll. "Well," said Mr. Adams, in that tone of sarcasm he so well knew how to use, "let him resign, and we may possibly discover some way by which we can get along without the aid of his all-powerful talent, learning and genius. If we cannot organize in any other way, if this clerk of yours will not consent to our discharging the trusts confided to us by our constituents, then let us imitate the example of the Virginia House of Burgesses, when the Colonial Governor Dinwiddie ordered it to disperse, refused to obey the imperious and insulting mandate, and like men ——."

Here he was interrupted by an universal shout of approval. Mr. Adams submitted a motion requiring the clerk to call the certified names from New Jersey. The clerk had refused to entertain similar motions, and when Mr. Adams was asked, "Who shall put the question?" he thundered out: "I intend to put the question myself!" At this Representative Rhett, of South Carolina, sprang to the top of a desk and moved that John Quincy Adams take the chair and act as presiding officer until a speaker should be elected, and without waiting for the clerk to act, put the motion to the House, which received it with a burst of affirmative cries.

On November 19, 1848, while walking in the streets of Boston, Mr. Adams was stricken with paralysis. He recovered enough to return to Washington, but not in time to be at the opening of the session of Congress. The House was in session when he appeared. As soon as he was seen entering the door all the members of the House arose, and business was suspended until he was conducted to his seat. On February 21, just as the Speaker was about to put a question, Mr. Adams was seen to fall forward. Great confusion at once ensued, all the members crowding around the fallen man. He was taken up and carried first to the lobby and then to the Speaker's room. He lingered until the evening of the twenty-third. His last audible words were: "This is the last of earth. I am content."

HENRY CLAY

HENRY CLAY—Secretary of State from March 7, 1825, to March 3, 1829. Born April 12, 1777, in Hanover county, Virginia. Son of John and Mary (Hudson) Clay. Educated in a country school. Married, April 16, 1799, Miss Lucretia Hart. Died at Washington, District of Columbia, June 29, 1852.

1803—Member Kentucky House of Representatives.
1806—United States Senator.
1808—Speaker Kentucky House of Representatives.
1810—United States Senator.
1811—Speaker national House of Representatives.
1813—Speaker national House of Representatives.
1814—Member Peace Commission.
1815—Speaker national House of Representatives.
1817—Speaker national House of Representatives.
1819—Speaker national House of Representatives.
1823—Speaker national House of Representatives.
1825—Secretary of State.
1831—United States Senator.
1849—United States Senator.

The services of Henry Clay in Congress so far overshadow those he rendered during his four years in the cabinet of President John Quincy Adams, and his leadership of a political party were so pre-eminent that

the country has almost forgotten that he ever had a seat in the cabinet, yet as Secretary of State he rendered services of such value that had they been rendered by any one else would have given him lasting fame. With but two or three short intermissions, and they of his own seeking, Mr. Clay was in public life for half a century, and his eminence was due to his native talents and abilities, without the aid of high education or influential friends.

In Hanover county, Virginia, is a neighborhood formerly locally known as the "Slashes." It was in that neighborhood on April 12, 1777, Henry Clay was born. His father, John Clay, was a Baptist clergyman of sterling character and great dignity of deportment, well known for his eloquence in the pulpit. Henry was but four years old when his father died, leaving to his widow, a woman of exemplary qualities, a family of children and with little for their maintenance, but rich with a stainless name.

The future great political leader had but scant opportunity to obtain an education and his little schooling was acquired in a log school house in the neighborhood of his father's farm. When not attending school the lad helped in the work of the farm. A few years after the death of his father his mother married again and the family removed to Richmond. His stepfather, recognizing the activity of mind of young Henry, obtained for him a place in the high court of chancery when he was about fourteen years of age. There the opportunity was opened to him for reading, an opportunity he eagerly seized. He also attracted the attention of the eminent Chancellor Wythe, who employed him as his amanuensis in writing out and recording the decisions of the court. This remained his occupation for four years. While thus engaged in writing out the decisions of the court he made up his mind to study law and entered the office of the attorney general of the state as a student.

In about a year he obtained his license to practice. His thoughts had been turned toward Kentucky as a promising field for a young attorney, and as his mother and her husband had removed to that state he followed in 1797. He chose Lexington for his future home and there offered his services to such clients as might present themselves. He easily became a favorite with the educated people of Lexington as a person of striking ability. His first success as a lawyer came as a defending attorney in criminal cases, but it was not long that he was confined to that branch of the practice. At that period in the history of Kentucky her land titles were in great confusion and the calendars of the courts were burdened with land suits.

Mr. Clay was never a close student, hence never became a profound lawyer, but his active mind made him not only a popular man but a successful practitioner. Ardent and enthusiastic by nature, he plunged at once into politics. It was just at the time of the great upheaval of political parties, when democracy was successful, and he became an

adherent of President Jefferson. His rare eloquence at once made him prominent as a political speaker and in 1803 he was elected to a seat in the state legislature. In such debates as occurred during the session he measured oratorical swords with some of the leading orators of the state, and before the close of the first session his fame as a speaker had spread over the state. It was while he was in the legislature that he so angered the leading lawyer and orator of the state, Joe Daviess, as to provoke from him a challenge to a duel. Mr. Clay promptly accepted, but friends interfered and a meeting was prevented.

In 1806, General Adair having resigned his seat in the United States Senate, Mr. Clay was appointed to the vacancy, taking his seat on December 20 of that year. When he took his seat he was not constitutionally eligible, lacking three months of being thirty years old, the constitutional age, but the records do not disclose that his right to a seat was questioned. He at once became an active member, serving on a number of important committees and taking part in all the debates. His first set speech was in advocacy of building a bridge across the Potomac River at Washington; thus, at the very beginning of his public career, arraying himself on the side of internal improvements. His brief senatorial career ended on March 3, 1807.

He had scarcely returned to Kentucky when the people once more sent him to the state legislature and he was elected speaker of the House. He signalized his services in the legislature during this session by vigorously upholding the Embargo Act of the Jefferson administration. This brought on a duel between Mr. Clay and Humphrey Marshall, the leading Federalist, in which both parties were slightly wounded. He also gave, during the session, his first conception of the protective tariff, with which his name is linked, by offering a series of resolutions pledging the members of the legislature to wear only such clothing as was of American manufacture.

In the winter of 1809-10 Mr. Clay was again sent to the United States Senate, this time to fill an unexpired term of two years occasioned by the resignation of the sitting member. When he entered the Senate the question of the boundary of Louisiana and Florida was disturbing the country. Mr. Clay at once took the side of the administration. One of the opposing speakers referred to the displeasure which the steps taken by the President might give to Great Britain. This gave an opportunity for one of those bursts of patriotic eloquence for which Mr. Clay became so famous. He said:

> The gentleman reminds us that Great Britain, the ally of Spain, may be obliged, by her connection with that country, to take part with her against us, and to consider the measure of the President as justifying an appeal to arms. Sir, is the time never to arrive when we may manage our own affairs without the fear of insulting his Britannic Majesty? Is the rod of the British power to be forever suspended over our heads? Does Congress put an embargo to shelter our rightful commerce against the piratical depredations committed upon it on the ocean? We are immediately warned of the indignation of offended England. Is a law of non-

intercourse proposed? The whole navy of the haughty mistress of the seas is made to thunder into our ears. Does the President refuse to continue a correspondence with a minister who violates the decorum belonging to his diplomatic character, by giving and repeating a deliberate affront to the whole nation? We are instantly menaced with the chastisement which English pride will not fail to afflict. Whether we assert our rights by sea, or attempt their maintenance by land—whithersoever we turn ourselves, this phantom incessantly pursues us. It has too much influence on the councils of the nation. Mr. President, I most sincerely desire peace and amity with England; I even prefer an adjustment of differences with her before one with any other nation. But if she persists in her denial of justice to us, or if she avails herself of the occupation of West Florida to commence war upon us, I trust and hope that all hearts will unite in a bold and vigorous vindication of our rights.

Although the youngest man in the Senate, he had by this time acquired a position of leadership among the Republicans. In later life he became the champion of the United States Bank, but during this service in the Senate he made a strong speech against its recharter, a speech from which President Jackson afterward liberally quoted when he was endeavoring to overthrow the bank, then being championed by Mr. Clay. Upon the expiration of his senatorial term he was elected to a seat in the House of Representatives in 1811. This was his first service in the House, yet on the very day he took his seat he was elected Speaker, a position he held every time he was a member of the House.

Conditions were rapidly pushing the country into a war with Great Britain, and Mr. Clay was ever foremost in insisting that the United States must defend her rights, even though war should result. As Speaker he so formed important committees as to place them under the control of the war party in the House. The war came, but President Madison was ever longing for peace and when the emperor of Russia offered himself as a mediator the President at once despatched a commission to Russia. The movement was a ridiculous failure, but Great Britain having intimated she would confer direct with us for peace, Mr. Clay was appointed one of the commissioners, resigning the speakership on January 14, 1814. Ghent was selected as the place of meeting for the commissioners of the two countries, and for months the American commissioners struggled with those of Great Britain, Mr. Clay ever advocating an energetic policy. A treaty was finally concluded which settled nothing that had been in controversy before the war.

After signing the treaty Mr. Clay was appointed in connection with Mr. Gallatin to negotiate a treaty of commerce with Great Britain, and he spent some months in London, the mission failing of accomplishing anything of moment. Mr. Clay returned to America in September, 1815. During his absence his old constituents had again elected him to Congress, and on the first day of the session he was once more chosen Speaker. The President had offered him the mission to Russia, and a seat in his cabinet as Secretary of War, but both positions were declined. When Mr. Monroe became President he offered Mr. Clay his

choice of minister to England or a seat in his cabinet as Secretary of War, but he preferred to remain in the House. On the opening of Congress on December 1, 1817, Mr. Clay was again elected Speaker of the House by a vote of 140 to 7, and at the next Congress he was re-elected without opposition.

During the sixteenth Congress the admission of Missouri as a state in the Union was the absorbing question. It was finally settled by what is historically known as the "Missouri Compromise." In many histories Mr. Clay has been credited with being the author of that compromise, and in the vicinity of Washington is a mansion of some historical celebrity in which is still pointed out a room where it is claimed he wrote that famous document. He was in no sense of the word the originator or author of the compromise. In fact, during its early stages he was opposed to it. The compromise was a Senate measure, and Mr. Clay was Speaker of the House. His main service in connection with the compromise was by finally saving it from defeat by a neat parliamentary trick. The bill containing the compromise passed the House on March 2. At the opening of the session the next morning John Randolph offered a motion to reconsider the vote by which the bill had passed. Mr. Clay, as Speaker, ruled the motion out of order until the order of business as prescribed by the rules should be disposed. When petitions were called for Mr. Randolph renewed his motion, but it was once more ruled out of order. When the morning business was finally disposed of Mr. Randolph for the third time made his motion. It was then too late, the bill having been hurried over to the Senate on an intimation to the clerk by Mr. Clay.

At the close of the session in May, 1820, Mr. Clay announced to the House that he found himself obliged to retire from public life and resigned the speakership. His retirement was not of long duration, for he was elected to the eighteenth Congress without opposition and was again chosen Speaker. In 1824 he was a candidate for the presidency. There were four candidates in the field—Mr. Clay; John Quincy Adams, Secretary of State; William H. Crawford, Secretary of the Treasury, and Andrew Jackson, senator from Tennessee. Mr. Calhoun, Secretary of War, had been a candidate, but had withdrawn. The electoral college failed to make a selection and the matter went to the House of Representatives, where Mr. Adams was chosen. It was then that the story of "Bargain and Sale" was started. The story was to the effect that Mr. Adams promised to make Mr. Clay Secretary of State in exchange for his vote and influence in the House to secure the election of Mr. Adams. No one now believes there was any truth in the story, but it clouded all the after life of Mr. Clay.

Mr. Clay was nominated by President Adams as Secretary of State on March 5, 1825. He was confirmed and commissioned on March 7 and immediately entered upon the discharge of his duties. It was while he was Secretary of State that Mr. Clay became imbued with the

idea of building up in North and South America a sort of grand brotherhood of nations. The Spanish colonies in South America had revolted and won their independence. Mr. Clay believed it would be possible to unite them and the United States, by a series of treaties, into a combination that would forever prevent any part of the two American continents from drifting under foreign domination. He failed in his grand design through the opposition in Congress.

Secretary Clay was anxious to acquire Texas and submitted to the Mexican government a proposition to purchase that territory, but the suggestion met with an unfriendly reception from the Mexican authorities and was subsequently withdrawn. In his commercial diplomacy Secretary Clay closely followed the idea of reciprocity. During the four years of his service as head of the State Department more treaties were negotiated and signed with foreign countries than during all the previous thirty-six years of the existence of the government. He concluded treaties of amity and commerce and navigation with the various states of South America, with those of Central America, with Denmark, the Hanseatic Republics, Sweden and Norway, and a boundary treaty with Mexico. He also secured a treaty with Great Britain providing for indemnity for slaves carried off by the British forces during the War of 1812-15. Shortly before the close of his term as President Mr. Adams offered Mr. Clay a seat on the bench of the Supreme Court of the United States, but it was declined.

In 1831 Mr. Clay was elected to the United States Senate and took his seat at the opening of Congress in December of that year. He was still an aspirant for the presidency and was the candidate of the Whigs in 1832, only to be defeated by President Jackson. It was during this service in the Senate the great agitation over the proposed nullification by South Carolina of the Tariff Act of Congress was finally settled by a compromise measure introduced by Mr. Clay. Another matter which caused great bitterness was the removal by President Jackson of the government deposits from the United States Bank and the resolutions of censure adopted by the Senate which were supported by Mr. Clay.

When the matter of the annexation of Texas came up Mr. Clay arrayed himself against it. In 1820, while a member of the House of Representatives, he severely attacked the administration of President Monroe for having given up Texas in the Florida Treaty, taking the ground that Texas was included in the Louisiana purchase and therefore belonged to the United States. In March, 1827, when Secretary of State under John Quincy Adams, he instructed our envoy to Mexico to propose the purchase of Texas for a sum of money. As head of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations he opposed all attempts to annex or acquire that territory.

In 1841 Mr. Clay, after notifying his friends in Kentucky of his intention to retire from the Senate, took leave of that body in March, 1842, in an elaborate speech. In 1844 he was again nominated by the

Whigs for President, but was defeated at the polls by James K. Polk, of Tennessee. In 1849 Mr. Clay was once more sent to the United States Senate by the people of Kentucky. The admission of California into the Union soon became a source of trouble and dispute between the advocates and the opponents of slavery. Again the great Kentuckian came forward with an elaborate compromise plan, known in political history as the "Compromise of 1850."

During his whole career Mr. Clay was an ardent champion of a protective tariff and of a comprehensive system of internal improvements. He died in Washington, District of Columbia, June 29, 1852.

MARTIN VAN BUREN

MARTIN VAN BUREN—Secretary of State from March 28, 1829, to May 23, 1831. Born at Kinderhook, New York, December 5, 1782. Son of Abraham and ——— (Hoess) Van Buren. Educated at Kinderhook Academy. Married, February, 1807, Miss Hannah Hoess. Died at Kinderhook, New York, July 24, 1862.

1813—Member New York Senate.
1815—Attorney General of New York.
1821—Member New York State Constitutional Convention.
1821—United States Senator.
1828—Governor of New York.
1829—Secretary of State.
1831—Minister to England.
1833—Vice President of the United States.
1837—President of the United States.

The statesmanship of Martin Van Buren, for two years Secretary of State in the cabinet of President Jackson and four years President of the United States, has been variously estimated. He was of Dutch descent on both paternal and maternal side. Born only four years after the adoption of the Constitution he grew to manhood at a time when that instrument was on trial, and came into public life during the first storms of the second war with Great Britain. His preliminary education was obtained in a country school in the neighborhood of his birthplace and at Kinderhook Academy. Leaving school at the age of fourteen years and entering a lawyer's office, his later education came from desultory readings and studies. He remained in the law office where he first began the study of that science until his twentieth year, when he went to New York city to complete his legal studies in the office of William Van Ness, at that time one of the ablest and most successful lawyers of the New York bar. Mr. Van Buren was admitted to the bar in 1803 and became a partner of his half-brother, James J. Van Alen, at Kinderhook.

He interested himself in the politics of the day and possessed the happy faculty of making friends. In 1808 he was appointed surrogate of Columbia county, New York, an office of not a great deal of import-

ance, but it added something to his income. In 1813 he was elected to the State Senate and became popular with the leaders of his party. In February, 1815, he was appointed attorney general of the state. This was not so much a recognition of his party services as of his really great legal abilities. He held this office until July, 1818. Having removed his residence to Albany during his service as attorney general, he continued to make that his home. By this time he was one of the recognized leaders of the national Republican, or Democratic, party of the state, and his skill as a political leader was acknowledged by all.

In 1821 he was elected to the United States Senate, but before taking his seat in that body served as a delegate to the New York Constitutional Convention, where he had much to do with shaping the sections relating to the judiciary. When he entered the Senate it was at the period known historically as the "Era of Good Feeling." He did not take a very active part in shaping legislation, but became the chief organizer of the new Democratic party that was soon to place its great leader, General Jackson, in the presidential chair. In 1828 he resigned from the Senate, having been elected governor of New York. It was generally understood that he accepted the nomination for governor for the purpose of making the state sure for General Jackson in the electoral college. He served as governor but a few months, resigning to accept a seat in the cabinet of President Jackson as Secretary of State.

He was nominated and confirmed as Secretary of State on March 6, 1829, but did not enter upon the discharge of the duties of the office until the twenty-eighth of the same month. There is little of record to show what measures he advocated in connection with our foreign relations, but it was well understood he was the ruling member of the cabinet in his influence over the President. President Jackson had a hard time with his cabinet in the very beginning of his administration, owing to several causes—his own impatience of opinions different from those he had formed; jealousy of the influence of what was termed the "Kitchen Cabinet," and the action of the female members of the households of some of the cabinet officers in refusing to socially recognize the wife of General Eaton, Secretary of War. General Eaton had married a lady of great beauty and wit, whose first husband had committed suicide. The President took the side of the wife of his Secretary of War and for more than a year social circles in Washington were in a state of continual turmoil. Secretary Van Buren was a widower, so he was not drawn into the social fight, but made favor with the President by treating Mrs. Eaton with the greatest consideration at all times.

The troubles at last became unbearable to the President and he was anxious to reorganize his cabinet. To give him the desired opportunity without causing party trouble by having an open clash with the members of the cabinet, Secretary Van Buren, in June, 1831, tendered his resignation of the State Department. His chief transaction as Secre-

tary of State was completing a treaty whereby the trade between the United States and the West Indies was greatly enlarged.

Almost immediately upon his resignation as Secretary of State President Jackson appointed Mr. Van Buren minister to England, a vacancy in that office having been made for the purpose by recalling Louis McLane to become Secretary of the Treasury in the reorganized cabinet. The appointment was made during a vacation of the Senate and when his name was sent into that body it at once met with strenuous opposition. The main ground of the opposition was found in his instructions as Secretary of State to Mr. McLane, at that time minister to England. In his instructions regarding the negotiation of a treaty to open trade with the British West Indies Secretary Van Buren reflected upon the previous administration, and stated that the party in power would not support the pretensions of its predecessors, admittedly a wholly improper remark in dealing with a foreign nation.

The opposition was strong enough to defeat the confirmation of Mr. Van Buren. It was while attending a reception at M. Talleyrand's, the French minister in London, that Mr. Van Buren received the news of his rejection by the Senate. It placed him in a delicate position, as his presence at the reception was on account of his being an accredited minister to England.

Mr. Van Buren returned to New York in July, 1831, and at once began an active canvass for the nomination for Vice President, he having announced before he went to England that he would be a candidate for that office. Mr. Calhoun was serving his second term as Vice President, and in accordance with the traditions could not expect to have a third term. Vice President Calhoun had expected to be the successor of President Jackson in the higher office, but a breach had come in the friendship of the two men.

It was not long after Mr. Van Buren's return from England before the party was fully informed that President Jackson had picked his former secretary for Mr. Calhoun's place. The Democratic National Convention (being the first ever held) met in Baltimore on May 22, 1832. President Jackson's fight had been against the old system of caucus nominations and he had insisted on a delegate convention. On the first ballot for Vice President Mr. Van Buren received two hundred and eight out of the two hundred and eighty-three votes in the convention. He was elected and for four years presided over the deliberations of the Senate with great dignity and courtesy.

Everywhere it was understood the Vice President was the choice of President Jackson as his successor when he should retire at the close of his second term, and such was the hold of the President on his party that no other name was mentioned. The convention was held in May, 1835, nearly eighteen months before the election. It was also held in Baltimore. Mr. Van Buren received the unanimous vote of the convention and was elected the next year.

Mr. Van Buren's term as President was a troublous one. He took office just as the great financial panic, the worst the country has ever experienced, was beginning to be felt all over the country. The money stringency had been occasioned by the withdrawal of the government deposits from the Bank of the United States and their distribution among the state banks; the circular requiring all payments for public lands to be made in specie, and over-speculation. The panic was widespread; all the banks in the country but three or four were forced to suspend specie payments and hundreds of them failed altogether, bringing down in the crash most of the manufacturing industries and many of the large mercantile houses.

To add to the troubles of the administration a rebellion broke out in Canada and many of the rebels escaped into this country. Their surrender was imperiously demanded by the Canadian authorities. This, with the hard feelings engendered by the disputed boundary in the Northeast between Maine and New Brunswick, threatening war, made the pathway of the administration very difficult. The Swartwout scandal added to the difficulties. Swartwout had been appointed collector of the port of New York by President Jackson. A few months after the accession of President Van Buren it was discovered that Swartwout was a defaulter to an amount exceeding a million and a half dollars. No such defalcation had ever before occurred in this country and the whole people were in a state of great excitement over it. Osceola, a great chief of the Seminole Indians, aroused the Southern tribes to war, and this was another source of trouble to President Van Buren.

By 1840 a strong opposition to the President sprang up in his own party, but it was not strong enough to defeat him for renomination. The political campaign of 1840 is still referred to as the most exciting the country has ever experienced. The Whigs nominated General William Henry Harrison, "the Hero of Tippecanoe." It was a campaign of great processions and barbecues, in which log cabins and hard cider extensively figured. It was the campaign which gave birth to "Campaign Papers," a system of appealing to the American people that wielded great influence in every election during the next quarter of a century. General Harrison swept the country. Mr. Van Buren keenly felt his defeat and four years later was again a candidate for the nomination. He was defeated by the application of the "two-thirds" rule adopted by the party at its first convention. On the first ballot he received one hundred and forty-six votes, thirteen more than a majority, but not two-thirds. The convention finally nominated James K. Polk, of Tennessee. Later it was claimed the defeat of Mr. Van Buren was owing to his having refused, when President, to ratify a treaty for the annexation of Texas.

In 1848 Mr. Van Buren was nominated for President by the Free Soilers, and although he did not receive an electoral vote and did not

receive in any state as large a popular vote as did General Taylor, the Whig candidate, he did receive in New York, Massachusetts and Vermont more votes than were cast for General Cass, the Democratic candidate. This ended his political career. He was an astute politician and a great party organizer. It was Mr. Van Buren who formulated the creed of the Democratic party after the first election of General Jackson. He lived to be nearly eighty years old and took great interest in political matters until his death, in 1862.

EDWARD LIVINGSTON

EDWARD LIVINGSTON—Secretary of State from May 24, 1831, to May 29, 1833. Born at Claremont, New York, May 26, 1764. Son of Robert and Margaret (Beekman) Livingston. Educated at Princeton College. Married, April 10, 1788, Miss Mary McEvers, and in 1809, Mrs. Louisa D'Avezac. Died near Rhinebeck, New York, May 23, 1836.

1795—Member national House of Representatives.
1801—United States Attorney for New York.
1815—Member Louisiana Legislature.
1823—Member national House of Representatives.
1829—United States Senator.
1831—Secretary of State.
1833—Minister to France.

The Livingston family was one of the most distinguished in the early history of New York. Edward was early sent to Princeton College, where he graduated in 1781, and went to Albany, New York, to study law. He was admitted to the bar in 1785, beginning his practice in New York city, where he speedily rose to eminence. In politics he was a radical anti-Federalist, and as such was elected to Congress, serving from March 4, 1795, to March 3, 1801.

In Congress he distinguished himself by his strong opposition to nearly all the measures of the administrations of Presidents Washington and John Adams. He was especially bitter in his opposition to the treaty with England negotiated by John Jay. At the last session of Congress in the administration of President Washington he was one of the twelve members of the House refusing to vote for the resolutions complimentary to the President.

Soon after the accession of Mr. Jefferson to the presidency he appointed Mr. Livingston United States Attorney for the District of New York, and the same year Governor Clinton gave him the appointment of mayor of New York city. He continued to hold both offices until 1803, when he resigned because of the dishonesty of one of his clerks in the office of district attorney. The clerk embezzled a large sum of the money entrusted to Mr. Livingston by the government. This dishonesty left Mr. Livingston a technical defaulter for a large amount.

Mr. Livingston, as soon as the embezzlement was discovered, confessed judgment for the full sum, surrendered all his property to the government and resigned both of his offices. He continued to pay on this judgment, as he could procure the means, until it was fully discharged, principal and interest. He was not able to make the final payment until 1826.

In 1804 Mr. Livingston removed to New Orleans, where he engaged in the practice of his profession and in dealing in real estate. At the time of his locating in New Orleans the laws of Louisiana were in great confusion and he framed for the state a code of practice which remained in force from 1805 to 1825. General Wilkinson made a false charge against him of being connected with the schemes of Aaron Burr, which for a time estranged him from his former friend, President Jefferson. While this estrangement lasted Mr. Livingston had an unfortunate controversy, in 1808, with President Jefferson, owing to a certain real estate transaction, and published a pamphlet violently assailing the President.

During the War of 1812 Mr. Livingston for a time served as an aide to General Jackson, and was of great assistance to the general in arousing the patriotism of the people of New Orleans. It was through the mediation of Mr. Livingston the pirates of Barritaria came to the aid of the Americans during the famous attack of the British on New Orleans. General Jackson became the warm friend of Mr. Livingston, a friendship which lasted until the death of the latter.

From 1815 to 1825 Mr. Livingston devoted himself to the practice of his profession, taking but little part in politics. In 1815 he was a member of the legislature of Louisiana, and in 1823 was sent to Congress from that state, serving until March 4, 1829. In Congress he was active in all matters concerning the navy, earnestly supporting all measures looking to the adequate protection of American seamen in foreign ports.

In 1829 he was sent to the United States Senate. During the exciting political campaign of 1828 he had been enthusiastic in support of his friend, General Jackson, and entered the Senate as one of his champions. When President Jackson determined to reorganize his cabinet, owing to the social war on Mrs. Eaton, he selected Senator Livingston as the successor of Martin Van Buren as head of the State Department. At the time this selection was generally regarded as one of the best that could be made, so high did Mr. Livingston stand in the estimation of the people.

When President Jackson entered upon his first term he inherited several unsettled and vexatious controversies with Great Britain, France and Spain. The controversy with Great Britain was twofold, embracing the dispute over the northeastern boundary, and certain clauses in

the Treaty of Ghent; with France they had to do with the settlement of certain spoliation claims, and with Spain over conditions in Florida, that section of the country being the hiding place for marauding Indians preying on the Americans near the border. Mr. Van Buren, while Secretary, addressed himself with much diplomatic skill to each of these controversies, but met with little success. Mr. Livingston found these troubles still vexing the department when he became its head.

He was somewhat differently constituted temperamentally from his predecessor, Mr. Van Buren being of an exceedingly placatory cast, while Mr. Livingston believed more in the *fortiter in re* method of dealing with other countries. He concluded a treaty with France whereby that country agreed to pay in a series of annual installments the large sum of twenty-five million francs as liquidated damages. France met the first payment promptly, but its failure to meet the second called for some strong language from President Jackson in one of his messages to Congress, and from Louis McLane, who in the meantime had succeeded Mr. Livingston as Secretary of State.

When this occurred Mr. Livingston was United States minister to France, and the controversy reached very near the breaking point. The excuse given by the French government for failure to pay the installment was that the convention had neglected to make the appropriation. In his annual message in 1834 President Jackson used some strong language on the subject. He said:

> The United States having, with a fidelity and promptitude by which their conduct will, I trust, be always characterized, done everything that was necessary to carry the treaty into full and fair effect on their part, counted with the most perfect confidence on equal fidelity and promptitude on the part of the French government. In this reasonable expectation, I regret to inform you, we have been wholly disappointed. . . . Not only has the French government been thus wanting in the performance of the stipulations it has so solemnly entered into with the United States, but its omissions have been marked by circumstances which would seem to leave us without satisfactory evidences that such performance will certainly take place at a future period. . . . The idea of acquiescing in the refusal to execute the treaty will not, I am confident, be for a moment entertained by any branch of this government, and further negotiation upon the subject is equally out of the question. . . . It is my conviction the United States ought to insist on a prompt execution of the treaty, and in case it be refused or longer delayed take redress into their own hands.

The French government demanded an apology for this language of the President, refusing to carry out the provisions of the treaty until such apology was made. In his message in 1835 President Jackson said: "The honor of my country shall never be stained by an apology from me for the statement of truth and the performance of duty." Secretary Livingston was ordered to leave France until that government expressed a willingness to hold communication, the French foreign office having declined to discuss the matter with him.

JOHN FORSYTH

JOHN FORSYTH—Secretary of State from July 1, 1834, to March 3, 1841. Born at Fredericksburg, Virginia, October 22, 1780. Educated at Princeton College. Married Miss Meigs. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, October 21, 1841.

1808—Attorney General of Georgia.
1813—Member national House of Representatives.
1818—United States Senator.
1819—Minister to Spain.
1823—Member national House of Representatives.
1827—Governor of Georgia.
1829—United States Senator.
1834—Secretary of State.

John Forsyth was of revolutionary stock, his father having served in the Continental Army. In 1874, when John was four years old, the family removed from Virginia to Georgia. There the father soon became prominent, serving for some time as United States marshal for that state. He was a man of great personal bravery, and in the discharge of his duties was utterly fearless. As marshal he was given a process to serve on a preacher by the name of Beverly Allen. The marshal was notified that Allen had declared he would kill anyone attempting to serve the warrant, but was not deterred by the threats. He made the attempt to enter a house where Allen was known to be, when he was shot down and instantly killed.

John was sent to Princeton College, where he graduated in 1799. Leaving college he devoted himself to the study of law and was admitted to the bar at Augusta, Georgia, in 1802. He rose rapidly in his profession and in 1808 was elected attorney general of the state. He served in that position with great success until he was elected to Congress in 1813. He served in Congress from March 4, 1813, to November 23, 1818, when he was elected to the United States Senate, serving in that body until he resigned, February 17, 1819. In both House and Senate he was a staunch supporter of the administrations of President Madison and President Monroe.

He resigned from the Senate to accept the mission to Spain, where he brought to successful conclusion the long pending treaty for the purchase of Florida. While absent in Spain he was once more elected a representative in Congress, and served two terms, from March 4, 1823, to March 3, 1827. He was a member of the House when the charge of "Bargain and Sale" was made against Mr. Clay, who was Speaker of the House. The Speaker asked for an investigation and Mr. Forsyth presented the resolution raising a committee for that purpose. He was made chairman of the committee, but the investigation failed, owing to the refusal of Representative Kremer, author of the charge, to appear.

In 1827 Mr. Forsyth became governor of Georgia, and on the resignation of Senator Berrien, to enter the cabinet of President Jackson, he was elected to the vacancy. In 1824 he had supported Secretary Crawford for the presidency, but in 1828 was an adherent of General Jackson. He was one of the leaders in the movement to combine the Crawford and Jackson men against Mr. Calhoun, and it was Mr. Forsyth who gave to President Jackson the information that Mr. Calhoun, while Secretary of War, favored the arrest and court martial of General Jackson for invading Florida during the Seminole War, information that estranged the President from his former friend, the Vice President.

Mr. Forsyth championed the removal of the government deposits from the Bank of the United States by President Jackson, and in the Senate made a powerful speech on the question. He also strongly antagonized the threatened nullification of the Tariff Act by states in the South. In 1834, when President Jackson reorganized his cabinet for the second time, Mr. Forsyth was made Secretary of State. He held that position through the remainder of the administration of President Jackson, and was retained by President Van Buren. As head of the State Department he handled all questions in a broad, liberal spirit, displaying much ability as a diplomat. One of the questions that was causing much trouble at that time was the failure of France to meet the payments of the losses incurred by American ship owners by the actions of Napoleon. The French Chamber passed an act relating to the matter, complaining of some things contained in a message to Congress by President Jackson. When the French minister at Washington desired to present the act to Secretary Forsyth, he refused to receive it, nor would he permit it to be read to him by the minister, curtly, but diplomatically, saying there was but one thing for France to do—pay the claims.

Up to the time that Mr. Forsyth became the head of the department the work had never been thoroughly systematized—that is, it had not been separated into divisions and bureaus. In October following his accession to the office Mr Forsyth issued a circular which prescribed the distribution of the duties in the department. The chief clerk's duties, he said, were such as pertained to an under secretary. He was to exercise an immediate superintendence over the several bureaus and report to the Secretary all acts of personal negligence or misconduct. The Diplomatic Bureau was to have charge of all correspondence between the department and our diplomatic agents abroad and foreign diplomatic agents in the United States; was to prepare treaties, etc., and keep indexes of its correspondence, a function now performed by a separate bureau. Three clerks were in charge of the bureau. The Consular Bureau had charge, similarly, of all consular correspondence, the business also being performed by three clerks. The Home Bureau was divided into four divisions, one clerk being in

charge of each. One division had control of the returns of passengers from foreign ports and registered seamen, miscellaneous and domestic correspondence, treaties and presents which were permitted to be exhibited. To another was given the custody of the seal of the United States and the seal of the department, the applications for office, the commissions and appointments. A third had the presidential pardons, passports and all correspondence relating to them. The fourth had in charge the filing and preserving of copyrights and the reports to the President and Congress. The keeper of the archives had charge of all archives other than diplomatic and consular, of the laws and their distribution, and of the publications of the department. The translator and librarian performed all the translations and cared for the books, etc. The disbursing agent made all the purchases and disbursements, and was also superintendent of the building. All the business was confidential. The clerks were required to finally act upon and dispose of all matters sent to them on the day of their receipt. The hours of business were from ten in the morning till three in the afternoon.

Mr. Forsyth remained in public life for thirty years. He ranked as a profound lawyer and one of the most eloquent orators of the time. He lived but a few months after retiring from office.

DANIEL WEBSTER

DANIEL WEBSTER—Secretary of State from March 6, 1841, to May 8, 1843, and from July 23, 1850, to October 24, 1852. Born in Salisbury, New Hampshire, January 18, 1782. Son of Ebenezer and Abigail (Eastman) Webster. Educated at Dartmouth College. Married, June 24, 1808, Miss Grace Fletcher. Died in Marshfield, Massachusetts, October 24, 1852.

1813—Member national House of Representatives.
1821—Member Massachusetts Constitutional Convention.
1823—Member national House of Representatives.
1827—United States Senator.
1841—Secretary of State.
1845—United States Senator.
1850—Secretary of State.

Daniel Webster, like Henry Clay, performed his greatest public services in the halls of the national Congress rather than in the cabinet. If the saying that "the child is father to the man" is true, it is fortunate that we have more of the details of the childhood of Daniel Webster and of his early life before he entered the service of the public than we have of most of those who have aided in conducting the affairs of our government.

Daniel Webster came from a long line of Puritan ancestry. In 1636, during the great emigration from England which preceded the Long Parliament, Thomas Webster, the first American ancestor of the great

expounder of the Constitution, came to America. The father of Daniel was a man of strong and vigorous intellect. In 1760 he enlisted in the French and Indian War, and played his part in a manner to win the commendation of his superior officers. After the war he settled at Salisbury, New Hampshire, and there Daniel was born. At the news of the battle of Lexington he raised a company of two hundred men and joined the army then besieging Boston. He was prominent in many of the battles and engagements with the English during the continuance of the war.

From his birth Daniel was inclined to be sickly, and because of his weak physical condition could take little active part in the work of the farm on which the family resided. At a very early age he began his school life, displaying great facility in the acquisition of knowledge. He early gave evidence of possessing oratorical ability of no ordinary character and was excessively fond of reading. He read with avidity all the volumes in the small circulating library of the village, committing to memory most of their contents. In 1791 his father was made a judge of the local court and the accession to his income turned his attention toward securing for his son better opportunities for education, so the next spring Daniel was sent to the Exeter Academy. He rose rapidly in his classes and at the end of nine months was placed under the charge of an educated clergyman to fit him for college. He entered Dartmouth College in August, 1797. In college he was not a very diligent student, but voraciously read all the English literature he could obtain and he remembered what he read. It was said of him that he was the best general scholar in the college.

In the debating societies he won a name for oratory that soon spread beyond the precincts of the college town, and in 1800 the citizens of Hanover invited him to deliver an address on the Fourth of July. The address was of such merit it was considered to be worth printing by the town authorities. In 1801 he was graduated from the college. He returned to Salisbury to study law. He did not continue these studies very long. His elder brother was also desirous of securing a collegiate education, and as he had willingly given way to Daniel, the latter now thought he should do something toward assisting his brother in obtaining his heart's desire, so he gave up his law studies and began teaching school in order to add his mite to the aid his father was able to give toward sending the eldest son to college. Out of school hours Daniel copied deeds in order that he might give all his salary as teacher to his brother.

He was successful as a teacher. One writer says of him: "His perfect dignity, his even temper and imperturbable equanimity made his pupils like and respect him." After thus aiding his brother he returned to Salisbury to resume his law studies. He strongly desired to complete his legal studies in Boston, but poverty was in his way, until his

brother, Ezekiel, again came to his help. Daniel had taught school to aid Ezekiel in attending college, and now Ezekiel, having completed his college course, taught school that Daniel might complete his law studies in Boston.

In the latter part of 1804, while Daniel was still engaged in his law studies, his father's court offered him the clerkship, with an annual salary of fifteen hundred dollars. This was a tempting offer, but, to the amazement and disappointment of his father, the young student declined it, preferring to complete his preparations for his chosen profession. He was admitted to the bar in March, 1805, and returned to New Hampshire, opening an office in the little town of Boscawen. After some months he secured a practice that was worth five hundred dollars a year. In 1807 he removed to Portsmouth as a more inviting field. There he rapidly gained in his profession, displaying remarkable ability in stating a case and in eloquence in presenting his arguments to the court or jury.

Like all lawyers of those days Mr. Webster took great interest in political matters, uniting his political fortunes with the Federalist party. Gradually he became known as one of the leaders of the party in his section of the state. In 1804 he published a pamphlet entitled "An Appeal to Old Whigs," in defense of the political principles of the Federalists. Four years later he published another on the embargo, which was at the time crushing the life out of the business of New England. This was rated as one of the strongest presentations made by the opponents of the embargo. He continued, however, almost completely absorbed in the practice of his profession, aiming at securing a sound foothold in the profession.

When war was declared against Great Britain Mr. Webster was one of those who opposed the war, but he did not go as far in his opposition as did the extremists of his party. In 1812 he was elected to the thirteenth Congress and took his seat at the special session in May, 1813. Mr. Webster had so impressed himself as a man of much more than ordinary ability that he was given a place on the Committee on Foreign Relations, of which John C. Calhoun was chairman. He had hardly got warm in his seat when he introduced a series of resolutions on the war which proved a firebrand, throwing the advocates of the war into a fever. As one of the causes of going to war with Great Britain it had been said by President Madison that France had repealed her decrees against American commerce and that Great Britain had refused to do the same.

Mr. Webster's resolutions called upon the President for information as to the time and mode in which the French repeal had been communicated to our government. There had been no such repeal. The President had been tricked by Napoleon, and it was for the purpose of bringing this fact before the public the resolutions were introduced.

Their introduction produced an angry debate, but they were finally adopted. At the next session of Congress Mr. Webster did not appear in Washington until the House had been in session about three weeks. In this session he continued his opposition to the war. He was re-elected to the fourteenth Congress. One of the prominent questions before this Congress was the establishment of a national bank. Mr. Webster at once took strong grounds against the measure. Some years later he became a warm advocate of the bank. The questions of the tariff and of a national bank caused many changes of opinion among a number of the early leaders of congressional life. At one time Mr. Calhoun was a strong advocate of a national bank and of a protective tariff; afterwards he opposed both. Mr. Clay was at one time an anti-bank man, but afterward became its warm champion. Mr. Webster was a free-trader and anti-bank man; he became a protectionist and a friend of the bank. The bill to establish the bank was passed by Congress but was vetoed by the President.

In this Congress Mr. Webster took a prominent part in the debates upon all important measures. It was during the session of this Congress that John Randolph, provoked at the criticism Mr. Webster had made of one of his speeches, sent a challenge to the New Englander. Mr. Webster's reply to the challenge has always been regarded as a model of dignity and scarcely concealed contempt. He refused to admit that the Virginian had any right to demand of him an explanation of any kind; that Mr. Randolph was so notorious for his lack of courtesy in the House that he was not deserving of ordinary courtesy from any one. He concluded his reply by curtly saying he did not feel bound to risk his life at anyone's bidding, but would always be prepared to repel any attack made on him. Mr. Randolph did not make the attack he had threatened.

At the close of the fourteenth Congress Mr. Webster returned to private life and to the practice of his profession. He had by that time attained to the leadership of the New Hampshire bar, but the earnings of his profession scarcely reached two thousand dollars a year. In June, 1816, he removed to Boston, where he believed he would have a wider field for his profession, and with much better financial results. Within the next five years several things occurred which placed Mr. Webster at the head of the constitutional lawyers of the country. One was his argument in what is known as the Dartmouth College case. His speech before the Supreme Court of the United States on that occasion has been regarded as one of the ablest ever delivered by him, and is still held up as a study for young lawyers. The argument in this case placed him as second to Mr. Pinkney only as a lawyer.

In December, 1820, he delivered his great speech at Plymouth on the bi-centennial of the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers. This, and his two speeches on Bunker Hill monument, have found their way into all the

JAMES G. BLAINE

RICHARD OLNEY

HAMILTON FISH

JOHN HAY

PHILANDER C. KNOX

school textbooks for declamatory purposes by pupils. He made many other speeches on special occasions during his long life, any one of which would have made the fame of an ordinary orator, and are worthy of a careful study by those who desire to become speakers before the public.

It was during these five years of active practice of his profession he was sent as a delegate to the Constitutional Convention of Massachusetts, and the ability displayed in the debates before the convention, with his thorough knowledge of what a government of the people ought to be, induced the people of Boston to send him as their representative to Congress. This was in 1822. He remained in Congress for six years, and it has been said those years were among the most useful and most brilliant of his whole public career. He took his seat at the opening of Congress in December, 1823, and in less than a month delivered a speech that is called a landmark in American policy.

Greece was at the time striving for independence from the Turks, and Mr. Webster introduced a resolution appropriating money to defray the expense of sending a representative of the United States to that country. In his speech in support of the resolution he endeavored to show that although the true policy of the United States was to absolutely and firmly refrain from taking part in the affairs of Europe, yet they had a solemn and most important duty to perform in exercising a proper influence on the public opinion of the world in favor of liberty. This speech was widely read, and was translated into all the languages of Europe and was extensively circulated in South America.

In June, 1827, Mr. Webster was elected to the United States Senate. At the time of the entrance of Mr. Webster into the Senate the tariff was the absorbing question. It was in a speech on the Tariff Bill of 1828 that Mr.Webster abandoned his former doctrine of free trade and took strong grounds in favor of protection. In the early days of the republic New England was a commercial section and believed the prosperity of the country could best be built up by fostering commerce instead of manufactures, hence Mr. Webster, at the beginning of his public life, was a free trader. By 1828 conditions had changed; New England was fast becoming a manufacturing center and the opinions of the people on the tariff radically changed, Mr. Webster changing with the people.

In December, 1829, Mr. Foot, senator from Connecticut, introduced a resolution that was to give Mr. Webster the opportunity of delivering the greatest speech of his political career, and is still regarded as the greatest ever delivered in the Senate of the United States. The resolution of Senator Foot related only to the survey and sale of Western lands owned by the general government, but it was made the occasion of a great debate such as the country had not hitherto known.

Taking the resolution as a text, or an excuse, Senator Hayne, of

South Carolina, made an attack on the New England states, to which Mr. Webster replied the next day in a speech of great power, but it was his second speech on the question that won him his greatest fame. It was at the close of this second speech he gave utterance to the sentiment so often quoted in regard to the indivisibility of the Union. The beauty and strength of what the great senator said, as quoted in most histories and in all the school books, are greatly marred by the erroneous punctuation. Senator Hayne had declared that the South held to the doctrine of liberty first and union afterward. To this Mr. Webster offered what he called a better sentiment, declaring that liberty and union were one and inseparable. As he gave it, it was: "Liberty and union now and forever one and inseparable." Its strength and beauty are marred by dividing the sentiment into three parts, by the use of commas, as is done in most books.

The reply to Senator Hayne made Mr. Webster a presidential candidate, but he was never able to secure the nomination of his party. He never lost his ambition to become chief magistrate of the nation. In the Senate he was, in general, strongly opposed to the acts of President Jackson, but at one time in the career of that distinguished President Mr. Webster came to his help. It was during the nullification excitement in the South. The administration had caused to be introduced into Congress what is known as the "Force Bill." It met with much opposition, even among the party friends of the President. Mr. Webster, although of the opposing party, defended the measure in a speech of great power.

In 1840 General William Henry Harrison was elected President and on taking his seat offered the position of Secretary of State to Mr. Webster, who accepted, resigning his seat in the Senate on February 22, 1841. His nomination was promptly confirmed by the Senate and he at once entered upon an entirely new field, but he was well equipped for its duties, as he was well versed in our own history and in that of the foreign nations with whom we were holding diplomatic relations.

At the time he took up the duties of Secretary of State our relations with England were such as to make a war seem almost inevitable. The almost endless dispute over the northeastern boundary was still agitating the public mind in both countries and the difficulties were increased by the Canadian rebellion of 1837. Certain of the rebels had escaped into the United States and in conjunction with some American citizens prepared to make inroads into Canada. During the excitement an American steamboat was captured and burned by an armed expedition from Canada, an American being killed. In 1840 a Canadian by the name of McLeod came to New York and there boasted that he was the one who had killed the American. He was arrested and indicted for the murder. The British government demanded his release, claiming that the capture and destruction of the American steamer was a public act.

This was the situation when Mr.Webster became Secretary of State. To add to the complications President Harrison died after having been in office but one month and Vice President Tyler became President. An unexpected result followed—a split between the President and the party that had elevated him to power. This split caused the cabinet to desert him, but Secretary Webster, having already taken the initiatory steps to a treaty with Great Britain, resolved to remain in the cabinet until the negotiations were completed.

In April, 1842, Lord Ashburton arrived in Washington as the representative of the British government. The negotiations moved with more expedition than is usual in such cases and the famous Webster-Ashburton Treaty was the result. In perfecting this treaty and in overcoming the many difficulties in his way, Secretary Webster displayed great tact and wise statesmanship. This treaty is regarded as Mr. Webster's greatest achievement in diplomacy. The treaty settled the northeastern boundary dispute, provided for joint repressive action against the African slave trade and enlarged the list of crimes subject to extradition.

The ratification of the treaty was followed by the "Battle of the Maps," an amusing diplomatic episode. While the negotiations were pending Jared Sparks, in searching the French archives in Paris, found a map of America on which the boundary was indicated by a red line, in a manner favorable to the British claim. It was put into Secretary Webster's hands and used by him to reconcile the commissioners of the state of Maine to the treaty, which deprived the state of a considerable portion of territory claimed by the state. The existence of the map was not known to Lord Ashburton or to the British government. When it became known it created a sensation in England. The British began a search of the Paris archives, but could not find the Sparks map, but did find another ancient map with the lines marked just as the United States had originally claimed. Later a map was found in the British museum that had been used by Mr. Oswald, the British negotiator of the treaty of 1783, which laid down the line traced by him, with the endorsement of King George III, in his own handwriting, showing the boundary to be as claimed by the United States. This map was used in the British Parliament to vindicate the conduct of Lord Ashburton.

Secretary Webster also negotiated an important treaty with Portugal, set on foot the Chinese mission and made an effort to settle the dispute over the Oregon boundary. Having completed these important matters and the split between President Tyler and the Whig party becoming wider, in May, 1843, he resigned the secretaryship of state, and retired to private life. In 1844 he was once more sent to the United States Senate. Mr. Polk had been elected President on the two issues—the annexation of Texas, and fixing the boundary line of Oregon at fifty-four degrees and forty minutes, the extreme claim of the United States.

Mr. Webster, in a memorable speech delivered at Faneuil Hall, took the view that the United States having once offered the forty-ninth parallel as a satisfactory settlement of the dispute, the country should stand by that offer and not willingly provoke a war. The Polk administration finally made a treaty on the lines marked out by Mr. Webster. In the Senate he opposed the war with Mexico and his course was so popular with his party that he and his friends thought he would be the Whig candidate for the presidency, but in this he was doomed to disappointment, the nomination going to General Taylor. Mr. Webster never recovered from this disappointment.

When Vice President Fillmore became President on the death of President Taylor, he offered Mr. Webster the state portfolio, which was accepted, Mr. Webster resigning his seat in the Senate. The best known incident of this period of his public service was his famous "Hulsemann Letter." The incident giving rise to this letter was the sending by President Taylor of an agent to Hungary to report upon the revolutionary government there with the intention of recognizing it if there were sufficient grounds.

Mr. Hulsemann was the Austrian charge d'affairs at Washington and complained of the action of the administration. Mr. Clayton was then Secretary of State and replied that the mission of the agent was simply to gather information. To this Mr. Hulsemann rejoined in a note written in a highly offensive tone. It fell to Mr. Webster to reply. In his reply the Secretary of State administered a severe rebuke to the Austrian and then set out in strong terms that the United States had, and would exercise, the right to recognize any de facto revolutionary government and to seek information in all proper ways. In this letter Secretary Webster had two objects in view. One was to awaken the people of Europe to a proper sense of the greatness and independence of this country, and the other to arouse the national pride at home. He accomplished both objects.

Another vexatious affair was settled during his services at this time as head of the State Department. In 1851, one Lopez, an adventurer sailed on a filibustering expedition against Cuba, having among his forces several American citizens. The expedition was a failure and Lopez and some of his followers were captured and executed. When this news reached New Orleans it caused great excitement and a mob attacked the Spanish consulate in that city and various stores of Spanish residents. The Spanish minister at Washington made a demand for reparation for the insult to the Spanish consul and indemnity for the losses of the merchants. Secretary Webster, in a carefully prepared paper, recognized the outrage done to the consulate and offered to make due reparation on that account. He pointed out the provocation showing the outrage was perpetrated in the heat of blood and frankly acknowledged the wrong, expressed regret and said when a Spanish

consul was again sent to New Orleans the flag of the ship bearing him would be saluted. As to the losses of the merchants he claimed that Spanish subjects were entitled to receive no greater or no other protection than American citizens and they must look to the local courts for redress. On his recommendation, however, Congress voted an appropriation as a matter of comity to pay the losses.

He was now near the end of his public career, but was destined to meet with one more bitter disappointment at the hands of his party. The Whigs were to choose a candidate for the presidency. Mr. Fillmore was desirous to succeed himself, and Mr. Webster felt his services to the party and to the country overshadowed those of any other man and that he deserved the nomination. It went to General Scott.

In May, 1852, while driving near Marshfield, his Massachusetts home, he was thrown from his carriage and severely injured. On the morning of October 24 he died, his last audible words being: "I still live." He was the last survivor of that trio of great statesmen—Clay, Calhoun and Webster—each of whom had occupied the State Department.

JAMES BUCHANAN

JAMES BUCHANAN—Secretary of State from March 10, 1845, to March 7, 1849. Born at Cove Gap, Pennsylvania, April 23, 1791. Son of James and Elizabeth (Speer) Buchanan. Educated at Dickinson College. Died at Wheatland, Pennsylvania, June 1, 1868.

1814—Member Pennsylvania House of Representatives.
1821—Member national House of Representatives.
1832—Minister to Russia.
1834—United States Senator.
1845—Secretary of State.
1853—Minister to England.
1857—President of the United States.

Representative in Congress, United States senator, diplomat, cabinet minister, President of the United States, such is the official record of James Buchanan. He spent more than forty years in the public service. Mr. Buchanan was of Scotch-Irish parentage. His father was born in Ireland, but emigrated to this country in 1785. Soon after reaching the United States the elder Buchanan entered into commercial business for himself and engaged in farming at the same time. It was on a farm the future president was born.

His father was a man of liberal education and sought to give his son all the educational opportunities possible. He was sent first to a school in Mercersburg, Pennsylvania, and then to Dickinson College. In a memoir left by himself it is stated that at college he so frequently infringed the rules that the president of the college informed his father

he would not be received for the closing year of his course, but young James made so many promises of future good behavior that the president withdrew his opposition and he was permitted to complete his course.

After completing his collegiate course he began the study of law at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, and was admitted to the bar in 1812. In politics he was a Federalist, but did not follow his party in opposition to the war with Great Britain. He enlisted in a company raised for the defense of Baltimore and was present when the British undertook to capture that city in 1814. In October of that year he was elected to the Pennsylvania Legislature and served two terms. From the close of his legislative service until 1821, when he took his seat in the national House of Representatives, he applied himself closely to the practice of his profession.

In 1820 Mr. Buchanan was elected, as a Federalist, a representative in Congress and took his seat on December 3, 1821. Very early in his congressional career he became prominent as a debater, and as the Federalist party was then about going to pieces, he began to turn to the Democratic party, but in 1824 supported William H. Crawford, the caucus nominee of the Republicans, for President. He later became involved in what is known as the "Bargain and Sale" scandal in connection with the election of John Quincy Adams as President. In a private conversation General Jackson stated that a prominent member of Congress had called upon him in the interest of Mr. Clay, suggesting that if the general would promise to appoint Mr. Clay Secretary of State, his election by the House of Representatives would be assured. When called upon for the name of the member of Congress making the suggestion, he gave that of Mr. Buchanan. This Mr. Buchanan promptly denied.

His ten years in the House of Representatives were active years, he taking an increasing part in the debates upon all important measures, being recognized as one of the leading Democrats. In 1830 he conducted on the part of the House the impeachment proceedings against Judge Peck, of Missouri.

In 1830 John Randolph, of Virginia, was appointed minister to Russia by President Jackson, with a sort of roving commission, or permit, from the President, permitting him to absent himself from his post at his own pleasure. This matter was brought up in the House of Representatives and so severely criticized the President felt impelled to recall Mr. Randolph, which was done in 1831. The position was tendered to Mr. Buchanan, who accepted it after long hesitation and with great reluctance. His nomination was sent to the Senate in January, 1832, and was promptly confirmed.

Among other things he was charged by the President with the duty of negotiating a commercial and maritime treaty with the czar. This

was a matter of great difficulty, owing to the fact that Russia was not much impressed as to the importance of the American Republic. So successful was Mr. Buchanan in overcoming the objections of the Russian prime minister that a commercial treaty was made and signed before the close of the year. Mr. Buchanan was not so successful in securing a treaty concerning maritime rights. Mr. Buchanan remained in St. Petersburg until August, 1833, when he began his homeward journey, intending to travel through France and England.

In December, 1834, he was elected to the United States Senate and took his seat in that body on the thirteenth of that month. As a member of the Senate Mr. Buchanan ardently supported the administration of President Jackson, especially in his war on the Bank of the United States. In December, 1836, he delivered what has always been regarded as his greatest speech. It was in reply to Mr. Clay and was in support of the "Expunging Resolution" of Senator Benton.

When the Pennsylvania electors cast their votes in 1844 for James K. Polk for President, they united in a strong representation recommending Mr. Buchanan for the position of Secretary of State. It was known that Mr. Buchanan was ambitious to become President and Mr. Polk had fears that this might clash with his own aspirations, but finally offered Mr. Buchanan the position, provided he would pledge himself to resign from the cabinet should he make up his mind to seek the presidential nomination. Mr. Buchanan declined to give the pledge, but said he would accept the office if tendered him without conditions. It was so tendered and accepted.

A number of important questions with foreign countries were pending at the time Mr. Buchanan took charge of the Department of State, among them being the disputed boundary of Oregon. Mr. Polk had been elected on an implied campaign pledge to insist on the boundary being placed at fifty-four degrees forty minutes. In 1842 our government had suggested the forty-ninth parallel as an acceptable solution of the differences between the two countries, but this suggestion was not accepted by Great Britain. Both President Polk and his Secretary of State firmly believed the correct boundary to be as claimed by the United States and in his inaugural address the President so declared, but his desire to avoid a rupture with Great Britain was so great that he instructed Secretary Buchanan to again offer the forty-ninth parallel. This was declined by the British minister and was at once withdrawn. Then Secretary Buchanan addressed a note to the British minister reasserting the claim of the United States to the whole of Oregon and made an exhaustive exposition of the American side of the question. There are few papers on our diplomatic records more able and searching than this exposition of the American claim to the territory of Oregon as a whole. After a long negotiation a treaty was finally signed on the basis of the forty-ninth parallel.

Another troublesome question at that time was the annexation of Texas. Mr. Buchanan did what he could in his negotiations with Mexico to prove the right of the United States to accept the annexation of Texas, but it was of no avail and war followed. In our relations with the Central American states President Polk, at the instigation of Secretary Buchanan, reasserted the Monroe Doctrine, with the distinct statement that no future European colony should be planted on the North American continent.

In 1852 Mr. Buchanan was one of the prominent candidates for the Democratic nomination for the presidency, but the nomination was given to Franklin Pierce. Soon after his inauguration the President wrote to Mr. Buchanan and tendered him the British mission. Mr. Buchanan held the offer under consideration for some time, but finally accepted, sailing for England August 1, 1853. During his residence abroad the main thing with which his name is connected was the issuing of what is known as "The Ostend Manifesto." In October, 1854, Mr. Buchanan, minister to England; John Y. Mason, minister to France, and Pierre Soule, minister to Spain, met at Aix la Chapelle and issued a lengthy circular on the conditions then existing in Cuba, in which it was said that if Spain should refuse to part with Cuba to the United States at a fair price, the United States would be justified in taking the island by force as a matter of self-preservation. The publication of the circular caused wild excitement both in Europe and in America.

While absent in England Mr. Buchanan was nominated by the Democratic Convention in 1856 for the presidency and was duly elected. He entered upon the presidential office at a period of great excitement in the country over the slavery question. The Missouri Compromise had been repealed, and the country was fast verging toward civil war. President Buchanan endeavored to pilot the nation between the two extremes, and had much difficulty with his cabinet; there was a lack of harmony in his official family from the beginning of his administration, and only a few months before the expiration of his term he was forced to completely reorganize his cabinet.

At the close of his term, March 3, 1861, he retired to his home at Wheatland, Pennsylvania, and died there June 1, 1868. He lived to see the Union cause triumphant and all the states back in the Union. After his death his memoirs were published, throwing much light on his administration.

JOHN MIDDLETON CLAYTON

JOHN M. CLAYTON—Secretary of State from March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850. Born at Dagsboro, Delaware, July 24, 1796. Son of James and Sarah (Middleton) Clayton. Educated at Yale College. Married, in 1822, Miss Fisher. Died at Dover, Delaware, November 9, 1856.

1824—Member Delaware Legislature.
1825—Secretary of State of Delaware.
1829—United States Senator.
1837—Chief Justice of Delaware Supreme Court.
1849—Secretary of State.
1853—United States Senator.

John Middleton Clayton was a descendant of Joshua Clayton, who came to America in 1682 with William Penn. On the day he was fifteen years of age John M. graduated from Yale College with the highest honors of his class. During his entire college course he never took a vacation, but remained at the college pursuing his studies with great energy. Leaving Yale College he attended the celebrated law school at Litchfield, Connecticut, and was admitted to the bar in 1819. He located at Dover, Delaware, which was ever afterward his home, and from the beginning took a very high place in his profession. He was said to have had no superior in his day as a jury lawyer.

In 1828 he supported John Quincy Adams for President, and the next year was elected to the United States Senate as a Republican. He at once became a leader in the opposition to the measures proposed by President Jackson's administration. He took a prominent part in the debate on Foot's Resolution, the resolution that called forth the debate between Senator Hayne and Daniel Webster, the speech of Senator Clayton being regarded as one of the greatest of the memorable debate.

He attacked the Postoffice Department, then under the administration of William T. Barry. The exposures he made practically forced Mr. Barry out of the cabinet, and he succeeded in bringing about many reforms in the department and in the postal service.

He supported the tariff compromise measure of 1833 and was credited with forcing Senator Calhoun to vote for it. He announced to Mr. Calhoun and the other senators who favored nullification that unless they all voted for the compromise he would move to lay the bill on the table, leaving President Jackson to deal in his own way with the nullifiers, saying it would not be enough for them merely to let the bill pass, but must, by voting for it, cut themselves off from afterward claiming the bill to be unconstitutional. In this attitude he stood firm, and the Southern senators accepted the bill.

He supported the United States Bank against the attacks of President Jackson and was one of the senators named in the famous protest of the President. He took an active part in the discussion of Senator Benton's expunging resolutions, declaring them to be an unconstitutional tampering with the journals of the Senate. He served in the Senate until December, 1836, when he resigned to accept the chief justiceship of Delaware.

In 1845 he was again sent to the United States Senate, where, although a Whig, he supported the administration in the war with Mex-

ico. He was selected by President Taylor as Secretary of State. As such Secretary he negotiated the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty with Great Britain, a treaty that for many years was a bone of contention until it was superseded by the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty. On the accession of President Fillmore Mr. Clayton resigned his place in the cabinet and retired to private life.

EDWARD EVERETT

EDWARD EVERETT—Secretary of State from November 6, 1852, to March 3, 1853. Born in Dorchester, Massachusetts, April 11, 1794. Son of Oliver and Lucy (Hill) Everett. Educated at Harvard College. Married, May 8, 1822, Charlotte Gray. Died in Boston, Massachusetts, January 15, 1865.

1825—Member national House of Representatives.
1836—Governor of Massachusetts.
1841—Minister to England.
1852—Secretary of State.
1853—United States Senator.

The father of Mr. Everett was a distinguished preacher. Edward graduated from Harvard College in 1811 with high honors. He early displayed great natural literary abilities. He studied for the ministry and for some time was pastor of the Brattle Street Unitarian church of Boston, securing a high reputation for eloquence.

In 1814 he was made Eliot professor of Greek literature in Harvard College, and to fit himself for that position spent four years in Europe, where he met many of the distinguished men of England and Europe, among them being Sir Walter Scott, Lord Byron and Sir Humphrey Davy. He returned to the United States in 1819 and assumed his duties in the college. In 1820 he became editor of the *North American Review*.

He was active in political matters and in 1825 became a member of Congress, serving with great distinction for ten years. In 1836 he became governor of the state and was re-elected three times, but was defeated for the fourth re-election by one vote.

From 1841 to 1845 he served as minister to England. He was recalled from that position in 1845 and was at once elected president of Harvard College, and served the college during the next ten years. He served as Secretary of State but a few months, the closing months of the administration of President Fillmore. While he was Secretary of State Great Britain and France proposed to the United States a tripartite treaty guaranteeing the possession of Cuba to Spain and a disavowal on the part of each of the treaty countries of any intention on their part of acquiring Cuba. To this Secretary Everett replied in a lengthy communication declining to enter into such a treaty, reasserting in strong terms the Monroe Doctrine. This letter was highly commended in the

Senate and by the press of the country. In 1863 Mr. Everett was elected to the United States Senate, but retained his seat only about one year, his failing health compelling him to retire from active political and official life.

In 1853 the ladies of America formed an association for the purchase and preservation of Mount Vernon, the home of Washington, and during the years 1856-57 Mr. Everett delivered in a number of cities an address on the life and character of General Washington for the benefit of the association. By this means the treasury of the association was enriched by more than sixty thousand dollars.

In 1860 Mr. Everett was the candidate of the Constitutional-Union party for Vice President on the ticket with John Bell. The ticket received the electoral votes of Kentucky, Tennessee and Virginia.

WILLIAM LEARNED MARCY

WILLIAM L. MARCY—Secretary of War from March 8, 1845, to March 7, 1849; Secretary of State from March 8, 1853, to March 6, 1857. Born in Worcester county, Massachusetts, December 12, 1786. Son of Jedediah and Ruth (Learned) Marcy. Educated at Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island. Married, Miss Newall; Miss Knomer. Died at Ballston Spa, New York, July 4, 1857.

1823—Comptroller of New York.
1829—Associate Justice of New York Supreme Court.
1831—United States Senator.
1832—Governor of New York.
1834—Governor of New York.
1836—Governor of New York.
1845—Secretary of War.
1853—Secretary of State.

William Learned Marcy, three times governor of New York, and later Secretary of War for four years, and then Secretary of State for a like term, came from good, old English stock. His father was not in affluent circumstances but was able to give his son a liberal education. William attended the common schools for a time and was then sent to the Liecester Academy to prepare for college. Young Marcy was not disposed to study and less to work, but he read with avidity every book he could obtain. He was of a contentious disposition, fond of debating every question that arose among the students. At the age of fourteen he was sent away from school by an ardent Federalist teacher because of his fondness for argument and his radical Jeffersonianism. At college, however, he became a diligent and careful student and graduated from Brown University with high honors.

Immediately on leaving college he took up his residence in Troy, New York, where he studied law and began the practice of that profession.

He had just began the active practice when war was declared against Great Britain. He was an ardent supporter of President Madison in this crisis and promptly tendered his services to the governor of the state. He was commissioned as lieutenant in a company of volunteers and was stationed on the Canadian frontier. It is said of him that in command of a detachment of American volunteers he captured the first British prisoners taken in that war. Later he was made adjutant general of New York and in that position rendered important services to the state and to the general government. There was much opposition to the war in New York, and Mr. Marcy won considerable reputation by writing a series of articles for the Albany *Argus* in justification of the war on the part of the United States and in defense of Governor Tompkins, whose actions had been severely criticized. Those articles led to his appointment as recorder of the city of Troy, an office he held for several years.

He took an active interest in politics, sustaining the policies of the Republican party, as it was then called. He was a strong political writer and for some time was editor of the Troy *Budget*, making it one of the leading party papers of that part of the state. His services in this direction were recognized by his party and an appointment to the office of comptroller of the state followed. This appointment was made in February, 1823. He was an ardent friend of Martin Van Buren, at that time the leader of his party in the state, and it was through his influence Mr. Marcy was given the position of comptroller. As comptroller the business ability of Mr. Marcy was put to a severe test, as the financial affairs of the state were in a bad condition, but so admirably did Mr. Marcy conduct the business of the office that no opposition was made to his re-election in 1826.

During the interregnum between his services as adjutant general of the state and his assuming the office of comptroller, Mr. Marcy had continued in the active practice of his profession, being counted among the able lawyers of the state. In 1829 he was appointed one of the justices of the Supreme Court of the state, and in that position presided at the trial of the alleged abductors of William Morgan, a crime that gave birth to the anti-Mason party. Morgan had published a book purporting to be an expose of the secrets of Masonry and had suddenly disappeared from his home. It was charged that he had been abducted by members of the Masonic fraternity. The disappearance created the most intense excitement throughout the whole country and gave origin to a political party. The mystery of his disappearance has never been satisfactorily solved.

In 1831 Mr. Marcy was elected to the United States Senate, but served only a few months, resigning in July, 1832, to take the place of governor of the state. He became governor on January 1, 1833. His administration of that high office was so satisfactory that he was

unanimously nominated for a second term and was elected by a much larger majority than before. He was again nominated in 1836 by a unanimous vote of the party convention and again his majority at the polls was in excess of that received at either of his previous elections. Originally Governor Marcy had been strongly opposed to banks, but during his third term he changed his view and advocated the passage of a general banking law. He was nominated for a fourth term in 1838, but his advocacy of the banking law lost him prestige with the people and he was defeated.

Soon after his retirement from the office of governor he was appointed by President Van Buren as one of the commission to pass upon certain claims against the Mexican government under the convention of 1839. He held this office until the powers of the commission expired by limitation in 1842. He returned to Albany and supported the Democratic state ticket, but did not take an active part in the campaign, holding aloof from any interference with the political affairs of the state. When Mr. Polk became President he selected Mr. Marcy for Secretary of War in his cabinet. In ordinary times, perhaps, Mr. Marcy would not have added greatly to his reputation by holding a cabinet position, but the war with Mexico gave full scope to his energies and his executive abilities. He was, in reality, the master spirit of the war, so far as the administration was concerned, the President trusting implicitly in his judgment.

He became involved in controversies with both General Taylor and General Scott, but the troubles seemed to be as much with those distinguished soldiers as with the Secretary of War. Both generals became impressed with the idea that the administration was endeavoring to sacrifice them for party purposes, but Secretary Marcy defended himself against the charges with great dignity and without displaying any animosity.

Throughout his service he ardently and energetically supported all the measures of the President and acted in perfect harmony with him in his settlement of the disputed question over the boundary of Oregon and in his attitude on the matter of internal improvements. Slavery was one of the agitating questions of the day, and Secretary Marcy urged on the President the propriety of non-interference in the controversy.

From the time of his retirement from the office of Secretary of War in 1849 until he became Secretary of State in 1853, Mr. Marcy held his position as one of the leaders of his party in the state and nation. President Pierce selected him for the leading place in his cabinet and on March 8, 1853, he became Secretary of State. Few Secretaries of State have been called upon in time of peace to take part in the settlement of so many troublesome questions as fell to the lot of Secretary Marcy. At that time the South was anxious to acquire Cuba, and it

was during his administration of the State Department that the famous Ostend Manifesto was issued by Ministers Buchanan, Mason and Soule. Secretary Marcy was opposed to the Manifesto and regretted its being made public. Mr. Soule, the United States minister to Spain, was an unhappy selection and caused the State Department endless trouble.

Cuba was in a chronic state of revolt against Spain and the revolutionists were encouraged by American citizens. In February, 1854, the *Black Warrior,* an American vessel, was seized by the Cuban authorities and vessel and cargo confiscated. This caused the most intense excitement throughout the United States and Secretary Marcy hastily despatched a special messenger to Madrid with instructions to our minister to demand reparation. Minister Soule was an impetuous man, wholly lacking in diplomatic discretion. He immediately demanded from the Spanish government the payment of three hundred thousand dollars, giving but twenty-four hours to comply with his demand. The Spanish government ignored his demand and quietly settled with the owners of the vessel for a small sum. This action of Spain gave rise to the Ostend Manifesto, in which the forcible seizure of Cuba was threatened in case Spain refused to sell the island to the United States. Secretary Marcy wanted Cuba, but not at the expense of a war with Spain.

In July, 1854, difficulties arose with the people of Greytown, a town on the Isthmus of Panama, and under the advice of Secretary Marcy a naval vessel was sent there and the town bombarded, a proceeding which brought upon the Secretary and the administration of President Pierce much adverse criticism.

Secretary Marcy was successful in settling a long and vexatious controversy with Denmark. For centuries Denmark had been examining all vessels passing to and from the Baltic Sea through the sounds or great belts connecting that sea with the ocean and collecting dues from them. This practice had been acquiesced in by all nations. When Henry Clay was Secretary of State, in the cabinet of President John Quincy Adams, he protested against this custom and finally secured a reduction of the dues, but not an abolition of the custom. In 1843, Secretary of State Upshur, in a communication to President Tyler, urged that the time had come for the United States to take decisive action to free the Baltic traffic from this pressure. Nothing was done at the time. President Pierce, through Secretary Marcy, gave notice to Denmark of the termination of the treaty which regulated these dues. This was seconded by the European governments and a conference was called to take the matter under consideration.

The United States declined to take part in the conference on the ground that we were unwilling to recognize any right belonging to Denmark to collect such dues and the only payment we could make

would be by way of compensation for any expenditures made by Denmark for the improvement and safety of navigation. The conference was held, however, and agreed upon a capitalization of the dues which was to be paid pro rata by the various governments. The share apportioned to the United States was one million and fifty thousand dollars, which our government refused to pay, but in 1857 agreed to pay three hundred and ninety-three thousand dollars in consideration of an agreement by Denmark to maintain lights and buoys and pilotage through the sounds.

Koszta, a Hungarian refugee, declared his intention of becoming an American citizen, but before his naturalization was perfected went to Turkey on private business. While in Smyrna he was arrested and placed on board an Austrian man-of-war. The American consul at Smyrna demanded his release. An American naval vessel, under the command of Captain Ingraham, being in the harbor the matter was reported to him by the American consul. Captain Ingraham at once threatened to bombard the city unless the demand of the consul was complied with. Under this threat it was finally agreed that Koszta should be placed under the charge of the French consul until the matter could be adjusted by the two countries. Secretary Marcy sustained the action of the American consul and made such energetic representations to the Austrian government that the Hungarian was released and indemnity made for his arrest. The energetic action of Secretary Marcy was enthusiastically endorsed by the American people. The Secretary also negotiated a reciprocity treaty with Canada.

Another of his troubles as Secretary of State arose over his order that our diplomatic representatives in foreign countries should, on all state occasions, appear at court "in the simple dress of an American citizen," a rather indefinite order. Up to the administration of President Jackson the official dress of American ministers was "a blue coat, lined with white silk; straight, standing cape embroidered with gold; buttons plain, or, if they can be had, with the artillerist's eagle stamped upon them; cuffs embroidered in the manner of the cape. White cashmere breeches, gold knee buckles; white silk stockings and gold or gilt shoe buckles. A three cornered chapeau-bras; a black cockade to which an eagle has been attached, sword," etc. President Jackson recommended some changes, generally in the way of cheapness, but still a distinct uniform. Secretary Marcy's order caused a good deal of trouble to our diplomatic representatives, owing to the rules of court and to the uncertainty as to what constituted the dress of an American citizen.

In 1856 the United States was invited to give its adhesion to the Declaration of Paris, which had been adopted by the great powers of Europe to put an end to privateering in time of war. Secretary Marcy proposed an amendment to the declaration that private property of

belligerents at sea be exempt from capture. The powers refused to agree to the amendment and the United States declined to give its adhesion to the declaration.

Mr. Marcy lived but a few months after retiring from the office of Secretary of State. His health had materially failed while in office, but not to such an extent as to prevent him from discharging his duties. On July 4, 1857, he was found dead, sitting in a chair in his library, with an open book in his hand.

WILLIAM HENRY SEWARD

WILLIAM HENRY SEWARD—Secretary of State from March 6, 1861, to March 4, 1869. Born in Florida, New York, May 16, 1801. Son of Samuel S. and Mary (Jennings) Seward. Educated at Union College, New York. Married, October 20, 1824, Miss Frances Miller. Died at Oneida Falls, New York, October 10, 1872.

1830—Member New York Senate.
1836—Governor of New York.
1849—United States Senator.
1861—Secretary of State.

The Seward family originally came from Wales and settled in New Jersey at a very early period. The father of the future statesman was a physician, farmer, storekeeper and banker. The grandfather of William H. served in the patriot army during the Revolutionary War, reaching the grade of colonel of a regiment. The New York home of the family was in the village of Florida and there William was born. As a boy he assisted in the work of the farm, although he was not of robust physique. He was required to begin his labors at dawn and they ended only at bedtime.

He was early sent to school, where he proved to be of a studious nature. Having been prepared for a college course, he entered Union College. While a student at Union College he had some differences with his father over money matters, the elder Seward being of a very close disposition in financial matters. Being angered by the treatment of his father the young man left the college without his father's knowledge and went to Georgia, where he obtained a position as a teacher in a newly established academy. He did not remain long in Georgia, however, but returned to college, where he was graduated in 1820. On leaving college young Seward began the study of law and was admitted to the bar in 1822. He almost immediately started for Western New York, and at Auburn accepted an offer to enter the office of one of the leading lawyers of the place as a junior partner. About two years later he married the daughter of his partner.

He early took great interest in the militia of New York and while at Auburn became adjutant of the troop which acted as the escort of

Lafayette when he visited Auburn. A few years later he organized an artillery company, contributing largely to its equipment, and was chosen captain. By successive promotions he reached the grade of brigadier general.

In politics Mr. Seward's family were Jeffersonian Republicans, but it was not long after reaching mature years before he broke away from his father's political faith. His first essay in politics was in 1824, when he delivered an address in opposition to what was then termed "The Albany Regency," a combination of New York politicians under the leadership of Martin Van Buren, William L. Marcy and a few others, who controlled the distribution of patronage in the state. In 1826 he presided over a convention of young men who were supporters of John Quincy Adams for President. The Adams party was overthrown that year and Mr. Seward became identified with the anti-Mason party. By that party he was elected to the State Senate in 1830. So far as the record discloses he did not take a very prominent part in shaping legislation during his term in the State Senate, but he widened his acquaintance, and his ability was readily recognized. In 1833, in company with his father, he made an extended tour of Europe, devoting much of his time to a study of European politics.

In 1834 the Whig party was organized on a platform favoring a policy of internal improvements and of protection of American industries. Mr. Seward was one of the organizers of this party in New York and was named as its candidate for governor. He made a thorough canvass of the state, demonstrating that he was an able and efficient stump speaker. He was defeated by a narrow margin and at the close of the campaign he returned to Auburn to resume the practice of his profession. In 1836 he was again nominated for governor and this time was successful. He served the state as its governor for four years, during which time many millions were expended for public improvements. He advocated a division of the public school fund so that the parochial schools maintained by the Roman Catholic church should receive a portion. It was his action in this connection which caused his defeat in 1860 for the Republican nomination for President. After completing his second term as governor he resumed the practice of his profession, but did not lose his interest in political matters, remaining an ardent Whig, taking an active part in the campaign which resulted in the election of General Taylor as President, and in February, 1849, he was elected to the United States Senate, taking his seat in December of that year. He remained a member of the Senate until he resigned his seat in 1861 to become Secretary of State in the cabinet of President Lincoln.

When he entered the Senate the admission of California as a state in the Union was one of the disturbing questions and the enactment of a new fugitive slave law was another. He became an active participant in the debates, and it was in one of his speeches on the authority of Con-

gress over the public domain he gave utterance to the saying so often quoted against him that there was a higher law than the Constitution. He early manifested the strongest opposition to the extension of slavery, claiming that Congress had the right to prohibit slavery in all the territories. While he was in the Senate the Know-nothing, or Native American, party was born and rapidly gained in strength in many of the states. This new party was bitterly hostile to Mr. Seward because of his attitude toward the public school fund while governor of New York. The political contest in New York in 1854 was a very bitter one, the Whig party being still split into factions, the regulars planting themselves on the anti-Mason platform. They were successful by a very narrow margin, and in February, 1855, Mr. Seward, in spite of the opposition of the Know-nothings, was re-elected to the Senate.

On the disintegration of the Whig party the Republican party was organized on a platform of opposition to the further extension of slavery. Of this new party Mr. Seward became almost at once the recognized leader. The first national convention of the new party was held June 17, 1856, at Philadelphia. Mr. Seward's name was largely canvassed before the assembling of the convention as an available candidate for the presidency. On the day the convention met Mr. Seward withdrew his name on the ground that the convention was not prepared to adopt all the principles he advocated and he would not modify them. The name of Mr. Chase was also withdrawn and John C. Fremont was nominated.

In all the debates over the admission of Kansas as a state in the Union, Senator Seward took an active part, as he did on the stump in the political campaign. In a speech at Rochester, New York, in the campaign of 1858 he designated the contest then going on between free and slave labor an "irrepressible conflict." That, with Mr. Lincoln's phrase, that "a house divided against itself cannot stand," furnished the advocates of slavery with much of their campaign thunder during the campaign of 1860. By 1860 it became the almost universal belief that Mr. Seward would be the Republican nominee for President. He was looked upon as the recognized leader of the party, but in Pennsylvania and Indiana the remnants of the old Know-nothing party held the balance of power, and those states were necessary to Republican success, so, in deference to the sentiment in those states, the convention nominated Mr. Lincoln.

As soon as it was known that Mr. Lincoln was elected President the eyes of the Republican party were at once turned toward Mr. Seward as the coming Secretary of State. In December of that year the position was tendered to him, and was accepted, but on March 2, 1861, only two days before the inauguration, Senator Seward sent a note to the incoming President withdrawing his acceptance. This withdrawal was occasioned by his antipathy to Mr. Chase. who had been selected as head

of the Treasury Department. It did not change the purpose of Mr. Lincoln, who, as soon as the inauguration was over, sent for Senator Seward, and although the note withdrawing his acceptance was not, in turn, withdrawn, the name of Mr. Seward was sent to the Senate on the next day, and the nomination was immediately confirmed and he entered upon the discharge of his duties on March 6.

For the next four years Secretary Seward was in a most difficult and trying position, one requiring tact, patience, firmness, rare judgment and diplomatic skill of a high order. Never in all the history of the State Department was there a period of greater difficulties than from 1861 to 1865, and no head of that department has ever had so many grave situations to encounter or so many opportunities to show true statesmanship and diplomatic ability. The Civil War was raging; every European power except Russia was inimical to the United States and would have gladly hailed a dissolution of the great American Republic. They were ready to take advantage of every circumstance to embarrass the government at Washington and were constantly seeking for some plausible excuse to acknowledge the independence of the Southern states. The difficulties were enhanced by the arrest in this country of two or three persons who claimed to be subjects of Great Britain and the tone used by the British minister in demanding their release; by the capture of the British ship *Trent* by Commodore Wilkes of our navy and the taking therefrom the persons of two Confederate envoys; by the cotton famine in both England and France; an attempt to revolutionize San Domingo in the interest of the Spanish government; the occupation of Mexico by a combined force of France, Great Britain and Spain, and by the tacit consent of the British government to the building and arming in British shipyards of vessels intended to prey on American commerce. It was only through the skill of Secretary Seward and President Lincoln, and sometimes by the display of sheer bluff on the part of the Secretary, that we escaped being involved with France and England.

Only four days before the inauguration of Mr. Lincoln, Secretary of State Black issued a circular letter to our representatives abroad, instructing them to exert all their influence to prevent any direct or indirect recognition of the seceding states. Secretary Seward, a few days later, followed this with instructions to use the greatest possible diligence to counteract and prevent the designs of the representatives of the seceding states who were seeking foreign recognition. Secretary Seward received a despatch from Minister Dallas, in London, conveying the intelligence that Lord John Russell, the English premier, had informed him commissioners from the Confederacy had arrived in London and that he intended to receive them unofficially. This aroused Secretary Seward's indignation and he wrote instructions to Charles Francis Adams, just appointed to succeed Mr. Dallas, which were

regarded as very menacing, threatening war with Great Britain. The instructions were modified by the President, which act irritated the Secretary.

Secretary Black instructed our foreign representatives to represent to the governments to which they were accredited that any recognition of the Southern Confederacy would tend to disturb the friendly relations then existing with the United States. Secretary Seward reiterated these instructions, but made them more vigorous. He instructed our ministers that there must be, in their communications with foreign governments, no admission of weakness in our Constitution as to the power of the government to maintain the Union, nor were they to express any apprehension on the part of the administration that the Union would be dissolved.

When he entered the cabinet Mr. Seward expected to dominate in the control of the policies of the administration. For months he believed he was the only man who could save the Union. He advocated a policy of delay on the part of the administration in reinforcing the forts in the South, believing if actual war could be staved off for a short time there would be a reaction in the South. His activities were immense. By means of a prominent resident of Washington he maintained close communication with many of the leading Southern Unionists. To the last he opposed all attempts to reinforce Fort Sumter, but secretly, with the consent of the President and without the knowledge of the Secretary of the Navy, he despatched an expedition to reinforce Fort Pickens, in Florida, the expedition being entirely successful.

On April 1, 1861, Secretary Seward submitted to the President a most remarkable paper. It mapped out a line of policy for the administration to pursue. Among other things suggested was that the slavery question be wholly ignored and a foreign war brought about with some nation; he believed that such a war would call forth such an outburst of patriotism that secession and all else would be forgotten. He suggested that a fixed policy be at once adopted and adhered to. In conclusion he said there should be an energetic prosecution of whatever policy might be adopted and it should be made the duty of some one person to see to the execution of the policy determined upon and suggested that, while he did not ask to be the one selected for such a purpose, he would not evade the responsibility. The President quietly pocketed the paper and pursued his own course.

Early in the trouble between the states the emperor of France proposed to England and Russia that the three governments act in concert in their course toward the United States and that they offer a joint mediation. Russia declined to be drawn into the matter, but Great Britain accepted so far as to agree to take the subject under consideration. Secretary Seward was secretly informed by Russia of the proposition of the French emperor and of the action of Great Britain. He at

once took prompt steps to forestall any joint action by notifying our ministers to England and France that this government would not recognize any such understanding between England and France and would decline to receive any joint communications or proposals.

Our ministers to London and Paris were forbidden to debate, to hear, or in any way receive, entertain or transmit any communication relating to mediation or intervention, and, in case of recognition of the Confederacy, to immediately break off relations. Arrangements had been made in London for a meeting of the British cabinet with a view of proposing to France and other powers a joint intervention. Minister Adams made known, in confidence, to an influential member of the British Parliament the instructions he had received and the proposed cabinet meeting was not held.

A short time after Secretary Seward had sent these instructions to our ministers the British and French ministers in Washington called upon the Secretary together to present a joint offer of mediation. The Secretary declined to receive them together or to receive any joint communication. He informed the ministers he would receive them separately and at different times if they desired, but not to present any joint communication. The ministers retired discomfited and Secretary Seward at once wrote to our ministers at London and Paris that the President would never invoke nor admit of any foreign interference, and instructed them to make this position of the President plain to the British and French premiers.

On all questions the British ministry took the supercilious tone characteristic of that government in its diplomatic dealings with other countries, but in Secretary Seward they found one who could and who would meet them on their own grounds. The President suspended the writ of *habeas corpus*. A person claiming to be a British subject was arrested and confined in one of the government forts. Lord Russell undertook to open a discussion as to the constitutionality of the President's action in suspending the writ. Secretary Seward curtly and peremptorily declined to enter upon any such a discussion with any one or to permit the constitutionality of any act of the administration to be called in question by any foreign power.

Late in 1861 the country was threatened with a serious break with England. Commander Wilkes, in command of one of the American vessels of war, took from the British ship *Trent* the persons of Mason and Slidell, envoys sent to France and England by the Confederate government. This he did without any knowledge on the part of the administration. When the news reached England it caused great excitement and the British ministry hastily began preparations to send troops to Canada. Then they peremptorily called upon the United States government to release the two ambassadors and to apologize for the act of Commander Wilkes.

The American people sustained the action of Commander Wilkes and Congress gave him a vote of thanks. Secretary Seward and President Lincoln realized the impossibility of going to war at that time with Great Britain, but the Secretary would not be hurried in passing upon the demand of the British ministry.

His reply, when finally formulated, is regarded as a masterpiece of diplomacy. It was a studied, elaborate and adroit affair. He first established by history and precedent that ambassadors were regarded as being contraband of war and could be lawfully captured on a neutral vessel, and that such had been the doctrine and policy of the British government. Having thus established the right of our government to capture and hold the two ambassadors, he went on to say that the United States had always denied the right of search of neutral vessels and had in times past gone into war with Great Britain to sustain that doctrine of denial, but England had always maintained the right of search. He closed by saying that the United States would maintain its consistency by releasing the prisoners, not by any reason of the demand made by Great Britain, but to emphasize the doctrine it had always maintained and advocated. By this adroit answer he put it out of the power of Great Britain to ever again assert the right to stop and search neutral vessels and take from them any person on any ground, and thus won what our War of 1812 failed to win. He did not apologize for the act of Commander Wilkes and the British government did not see fit to press that matter. Throughout the whole reply there is distinctly observable a vein of sarcasm and contempt.

Over the protests of the United States government the British ministry had permitted the building and arming of Confederate cruisers in English shipyards. Against this Secretary Seward vainly and vigorously protested, until he caused Minister Adams, on one occasion, to supplement his protest with a quiet intimation that if the vessel then under construction should be permitted to sail it would mean war. This intimation brought active measures on the part of the British ministry to prevent the sailing of the vessel.

When the Emperor Napoleon attempted to set up a monarchy in Mexico, Secretary Seward met all the advances of France in a dignified yet positive manner. While not placing our government in a position that would give the French emperor any grounds for interference in our troubles, he was constant in declaring it to be the settled policy of the United States not to countenance the occupation of any part of the American continents by a European government. When our own war was over he sent a strong intimation to France that if that country desired to remain on good terms with the United States it would be good policy for the French to let the people of Mexico regulate their own affairs without any pressure by French troops. In September, 1865, he became more peremptory with France, and again in Novem-

ber of that year. Napoleon decided to withdraw the French troops in three installments, one in November, 1866, and the other two in March and November, 1867. When the time came for the sailing of the first installment the French emperor changed his mind and wanted to postpone the departure. Secretary Seward would not listen to the proposition, but insisted on immediate action.

Even amid the various contentions with Great Britain Secretary Seward succeeded in negotiating a treaty with that government which he regarded as the greatest act of his administration. It was a treaty for the suppression of the slave trade. Of this Mr. Seward himself wrote: "If I have done nothing else worthy of self-congratulation, I deem this treaty sufficient to have lived for." The treaty did not accomplish much, owing to the emancipation of slaves in the United States.

Secretary Seward was insistent in making demands upon the British government for damages occasioned to American shipowners by Confederate privateers permitted to sail from England. The British ministry were equally insistent in declaring her majesty's government would never admit of any liability for such losses, but on every new occasion Secretary Seward would cause to be filed a new demand. These demands were later allowed by the Geneva Tribunal.

During the early part of his administration of the State Department Mr. Seward interfered with all the other departments. He gave instructions to army and navy officers without consulting the heads of those departments, and to United States marshals. For this he was at one time taken severely to task by Attorney General Bates. He was regarded by the more radical element in Congress as being the "evil genius" of President Lincoln, and in December, 1862, a caucus of Republican senators passed a resolution asking the President to remove him.

On April 5, 1865, Mr. Seward was thrown from his carriage and so badly injured that for a time his life was despaired of. On the night of the fourteenth of that month Payne, one of the conspirators to assassinate President Lincoln, forced his way into the Secretary's house and stabbed him several times with a large bowie knife. It was a long time before he recovered from his wounds, but as soon as he could be moved he was daily carried to his chair in the State Department.

Mr. Seward remained in the cabinet of President Johnson and generally supported the President in his reconstruction policy as against that of Congress. He negotiated treaties with several of the South American states for the settlement of all outstanding claims; one with Nicaragua containing stipulations for a canal between the two oceans. He also secured from Prussia and some of the other European governments an acknowledgment of the right of a subject to change his allegiance. He also negotiated a treaty with Great Britain for the settlement of the claims for damages to American shipping by Confederate cruisers built in England, but the Senate refused to ratify it.

The most important treaty with which the name of Secretary Seward is connected is that with Russia, by which the United States came into possession of Alaska. This has often been called Secretary Seward's greatest service to the country. The treaty of purchase was agreed to on March 30, 1867. Mr. Monroe, when President, had checked the movement of Russian power southward upon the Pacific coast and in 1859 Russia had made an offer of sale, but it was left to Mr. Seward to conclude the matter.

This purchase seemed likely at one time to break out into a national scandal, charges being made that a large part of the purchase money had been paid here to carry the bill appropriating the money through Congress. The charges were soon proved to be without foundation, having their rise in a newspaper report from London that the round sum of five million dollars was recently transferred from the vaults of the Barings in London to the treasury of the czar. Those desirous of finding a scandal at once jumped to the conclusion that this was the identical money paid by the United States for Alaska, and was all the Russian government actually received, and that the remainder of the seven million two hundred thousand dollars had been corruptly disbursed in Washington to secure favorable action from Congress. A little investigation disclosed that the full amount of the purchase money had been remitted by the United States to the Barings, who were the London bankers of the czar, in coin bills of exchange.

Secretary Seward was also very anxious to secure the island of St. Thomas, but was not able to bring about the cession. It was a dream of Mr. Seward to see both American continents united in one government, or at least so closely connected politically and commercially that to the rest of the world they would practically be one. In this he followed John Quincy Adams.

After leaving the cabinet Mr. Seward spent two years in European travel. His death was sudden. He was engaged in writing his experiences in foreign countries and began the work one morning assisted by his adopted daughter. Apparently in good health he was still weak and thought to lie down a few moments for rest. The end came as he lay down upon his couch.

ELIHU BENJAMIN WASHBURNE

ELIHU B. WASHBURNE—Secretary of State from March 5, 1869, to March 16, 1869. Born in Livermore, Maine, September 23, 1816. Son of Israel and Martha (Benjamin) Washburne. Educated in the common schools. Married Miss Hempstead. Died in Chicago, Illinois, October 22, 1887.

1853—Member national House of Representatives.
1869—Secretary of State.
1869—Minister to France.

Elihu B. Washburne, who was Secretary of State for a period of fifteen days, was a member of a family that had been conspicuous and distinguished in the public life of the United States. His ancestors settled in Duxbury, Massachusetts, in 1639. Elihu gathered a desultory education in the district schools while working on a farm until he was seventeen years of age, when he became an apprentice in a printing office. He rose in that business until he became editor of the Kennebec *Journal,* one of the influential papers of the state. He studied law and in 1840 was admitted to the bar and removed to Galena, Illinois. He was a Whig in politics and soon became one of the leaders of that party in his section of the state. In 1853 he was elected to Congress and held his seat continuously for sixteen years.

On the dissolution of the Whig party he became a Republican. He was an intimate friend of Abraham Lincoln and did much to secure his nomination for President in 1860. He was a determined foe to the extension of slavery. For ten years of his service in the House he was chairman of the Committee on Commerce, and from his opposition to all forms of extravagance and his watchfulness over expenditures was called "the watch dog of the treasury." He was especially antagonistic to subsidies and grants of lands to railroads.

During the Civil War he was an ardent supporter of all the measures of the administration and the defender of President Lincoln against his critics. In 1861 General Grant was a resident of Galena, and having attracted the notice of Representative Washburne, that gentleman remained his steadfast friend throughout the war, introducing and securing the passage of the act reviving the grade of lieutenant general of the army and also of the act creating the grade of general, to both of which grades General Grant was promoted. Among his other measures he introduced the bill providing for the purchase and maintenance of national cemeteries on some of the important battlefields of the war.

Mr. Washburne was desirous of the mission to France, but was also desirous of having his name connected with the State Department as its head, and when General Grant became President he nominated Mr. Washburne for Secretary of State. The nomination was promptly confirmed and Mr. Washburne took the oath of office on March 5 and resigned on the sixteenth, having been appointed and confirmed as minister to France.

He was in Paris during the Franco-Prussian War and the siege of that city and the after uprising of the commune. He gave the protection of his legation to many persons subjects of other nations, especially Germans, and by his thoughtfulness, firmness and tact won the admiration and friendship of both the French and German governments. The emperor of Germany ordered a wreath to be placed on his casket at the time of his funeral.

HAMILTON FISH

HAMILTON FISH—Secretary of State from March 17, 1869, to March 12, 1877. Born in the city of New York, August 3, 1808. Son of Nicholas and Elizabeth (Stuyvesant) Fish. Educated at Columbia College. Married, in 1836, Miss Julia Kean. Died September 7, 1893, at Glen-Cliffe, New York.

1843—Member national House of Representatives.
1847—Member New York Senate.
1848—Lieutenant Governor of New York.
1849—Governor of New York.
1851—United States Senator.
1869—Secretary of State.

Hamilton Fish came from distinguished ancestry. His father was one of the prominent men of New York and at one time was a candidate for governor of the state. His mother was a descendant of one of the colonial governors of New Amsterdam. Having received a sound preparatory education young Hamilton was sent to Columbia College, being graduated in 1827. He at once began the study of law and was admitted to the bar in 1830. It did not take him long to acquire a large and lucrative practice.

From a very early age he took an active interest in the affairs of the state, allying himself with the Whig party, and for several years was commissioner of deeds. In 1834 he was nominated by his party for a seat in the assembly, but was defeated at the polls. For some time he devoted himself to the practice of his profession, gaining in the confidence of the people. Against his wishes he was nominated in 1842 by the Whigs for Congress and was elected in a strong Democratic district; the district at the same election giving a large majority for the Democratic candidate for governor.

In 1846 the politics of the state were in a disturbed condition owing to the action of a faction known as "Anti-Renters." The Whigs, over his earnest protest, nominated Mr. Fish as the party candidate for lieutenant governor. The Anti-Renters split their tickets, voting for the Whig candidate for governor and the Democratic candidate for lieutenant governor, thus defeating Mr. Fish. A vacancy occurring the next year he was again nominated and this time was successful by a majority of more than thirty thousand. As president of the Senate he was distinguished for courtesy and dignity. At that time he was regarded as one of the most popular men in the state.

In 1848 he was elected governor of the state, taking the oath of office in January, 1849. As governor he strongly advocated the endowment of a state agricultural college and a school for instruction in the mechanical arts. He also urged a remodeling of the tax laws and a modification of the criminal code.

In 1851 Mr. Fish was elected to the United States Senate and there took strong and active grounds against the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. On the formation of the Republican party Mr. Fish united with it and was recognized as one of its leaders in New York. On the expiration of his senatorial term he made an extended visit to Europe and on his return again became active in politics. During the political campaign of 1860 Mr. Fish was an ardent and enthusiastic supporter of Mr. Lincoln.

On the outbreak of the Civil War he was one of that number of distinguished and influential citizens of New York who took an active part in shaping public opinion to sustain the administration. In 1862, in conjunction with Bishop Ames of the Methodist Episcopal church, he was appointed a commissioner to visit the soldiers of the United States held in Southern prisons and relieve their necessities and provide for their comfort. The Confederate authorities declined to admit them within the lines, but intimated they would be willing to agree to a general exchange of prisoners. Out of this grew the final exchange cartel.

Mr. Fish was one of the few private citizens President Lincoln relied upon for advice and he was frequently employed by the President on delicate and confidential missions. He was looked upon as one of the strongest supporters of the President and wielded a large influence in New York, but declined all offers of official position.

Having been so long out of public life the country was surprised when President Grant, in 1869, invited him into his cabinet as Secretary of State. Hon. E. B. Washburne, of Illinois, wanted the mission to France, but was anxious to have the honor of being named Secretary of State, even if he was to serve for a few days only. In accordance with his desire he was named and confirmed as Secretary of State on March 5, 1869, resigning on the sixteenth. President Grant had once been a guest of Mr. Fish in New York and formed a high opinion of his abilities and tendered him the office to be made vacant by the appointment of Mr. Washburne as minister to France.

Mr. Fish at first declined but finally yielded to the urging of the President. He was eminently fitted for the position, being a man of education and wide knowledge of public affairs. During his service of eight years a great variety of diplomatic questions arose, all of them being handled with rare skill. Through his prudent and skillful conduct of affairs the government was enabled to discharge its international obligations during the serious troubles with Cuba and preserve the confidence of the people.

What is known as the *Virginius* affair was causing many apprehensions of ultimate war with Spain. The *Virginius* was engaged in carrying arms and munitions of war to the Cuban revolutionists in 1873. It was captured by a Spanish vessel of war near Jamaica. The captain and thirty-five of his crew, and a Cuban passenger, were executed. The

affair caused intense excitement in this country and there was a great clamor for war. Secretary Fish was able to secure a treaty by which an indemnity for those executed was paid and the remaining one hundred and two prisoners released.

Secretary Fish favored the acquisition of San Domingo and negotiated a treaty to that end, but it was rejected by the Senate. In 1876 the British authorities refused to extradite one Winslow, indicted in this country for the crime of forgery, unless assurance should be given that he would not be tried for any other offense. This was in contravention of the terms of the treaty then existing between the two countries. The British authorities based their refusal on the ground that after the treaty had been made Great Britain had passed a law requiring that such assurance should be given before extradition would be accorded.

Secretary Fish refused to give the assurance on the ground that such assurance was not warranted by the treaty, contending that the terms of a treaty could not be modified by a domestic law. He gave notice that if Great Britain maintained her position the United States would cease to ask for the surrender of any criminals. For months the treaty was virtually suspended, but finally Great Britain yielded the point.

The most important diplomatic question which occupied the attention of Secretary Fish was that of the lax enforcement of the neutrality laws by Great Britain during the American Civil War. Several times that government had declared it would never admit of any liability for the depredations of the Confederate cruisers constructed and armed in England, nor would she submit the question to arbitration. When he was Secretary of State Mr. Seward kept pressing the matter and, finally, in 1869, Reverdy Johnson, the American minister to London, negotiated a treaty for the adjustment of all differences between the two countries. The Senate, by an almost unanimous vote, rejected the treaty. Secretary Fish reopened the matter with the result that a special commission composed of distinguished Englishmen was sent over to Washington to confer with a like commission on the part of the United States. Mr. Fish was one of the American commissioners. The Treaty of Washington, signed May 8, 1871, was the outcome. This was one of the most comprehensive and important treaties ever negotiated by the United States. The treaty embraced eleven distinct subjects. In it the British commissioners expressed "the regret felt by her majesty's government for the escape" of the *Alabama* and other vessels and agreed to the submission of the claims for damages to an arbitration tribunal. The tribunal awarded the United States a sum in excess of fifteen million dollars.

Secretary Fish was one of the closest friends of President Grant, who regarded him as his ablest adviser. When President Grant was about to retire at the close of his second term he much desired that Secretary Fish be nominated as his successor.

WILLIAM MAXWELL EVARTS

WILLIAM M. EVARTS—Attorney General from July 28, 1868, to March 4, 1869; Secretary of State from March 12, 1877, to March 7, 1881. Born in Boston, Massachusetts, February 6, 1818. Son of Jeremiah and Mehitable (Sherman) Evarts. Educated at Yale College. Married, August 19, 1843, Helen Wardman. Died in New York city, February 28, 1901.

1849—United States District Attorney for New York.
1867—Member New York Constitutional Convention.
1868—Attorney General of the United States.
1872—United States Counsel at Geneva Arbitration.
1877—Secretary of State.
1885—United States Senator.

William M. Evarts was one of the great lawyers of the country. He graduated from Yale College in 1837, where he had been one of the four founders of the *Yale Literary Magazine*. Leaving Yale he took a law course in the law department of Harvard and was admitted to the bar in New York city in 1841 and entered upon the practice in that city. His ability was soon recognized and he was retained in many of the most important cases coming before the New York courts and before the Supreme Court of the United States. In 1849 he was appointed United States District Attorney for New York. He was a Whig in politics and, while taking great interest in political matters, he devoted himself almost exclusively to his profession.

On the formation of the Republican party he united with it, owing to his opposition to the extension of slavery. When President Johnson was impeached by the House of Representatives he engaged Mr. Evarts as one of his counsel and he took the leading part for the defense. Another celebrated case in which he appeared was that of Tilton against Beecher, where he acted as the leading counsel for Mr. Beecher. His successful conduct of that case brought him great fame. In 1877 he appeared for the Republican party before the electoral commission created to pass upon the contest for the presidency between Mr. Hayes and Mr. Tilden. After the close of his impeachment trial President Johnson nominated Henry Stanbery for Attorney General, Mr. Stanbery having resigned that office to act as one of the counsel for the President in the impeachment trial. The Senate refused to confirm the nomination of Mr. Stanbery and the name of Mr. Evarts was sent to the Senate and promptly confirmed.

President Grant named Mr. Evarts as the leading counsel for the United States before the Geneva Arbitration Tribunal hearing the claims of the United States for damages against Great Britain for depredations committed by the Confederate cruisers. His argument on that occasion has always been regarded as one of the greatest in all the history of international controversies.

President Hayes nominated Mr. Evarts as Secretary of State when he became President in 1877. As head of the State Department his principal actions had relation to affairs in Mexico. Porfiro Diaz had just overturned the existing Mexican government as represented by President Lerdo. Colonel John W. Foster, United States minister to Mexico, recommended the recognition of Diaz, but Secretary Evarts refused. This action caused much hard feeling in Mexico against the United States, the charge being made that the United States desired to keep up turbulence in that country in order to have an excuse for interference and annexation of a part of the Mexican territory. President Diaz had been in control of the Mexican government and had restored peace in the country sixteen months before Secretary Evarts would recognize him.

It was by the advice of Secretary Evarts that President Hayes refused to interfere in Louisiana, Florida and South Carolina when the Republican government set up in those states by the returning boards were overthrown by the Democrats. This action brought great criticism upon both the President and Secretary Evarts from the Republican press. The Republicans claimed that it was through the actions of those same returning boards that Mr. Hayes held his seat as President; that if their action in sustaining the Republican state officers was wrong their action in counting the votes for the presidential electors was equally wrong. Secretary Evarts held that the title of Mr. Hayes was through the decision of the electoral commission and the title of the Democratic state officers was through the action of state courts and legislatures; and that if their government was Republican in form the United States government had no constitutional right to interfere.

While Mr. Evarts was Secretary of State a serious complication arose between the United States and Great Britain over the proper construction to be given to the fishery clause of the Treaty of Washington negotiated in 1871 by Secretary of State Fish. That treaty granted to American fishermen the right to take and cure fish on the Canadian coasts. In January, 1878, inhabitants of Fortune Bay, Newfoundland, attacked some Gloucester fishermen who were taking on cargoes of frozen herring, cut the nets and drove away the crews of the fishing vessels.

In a strong communication Secretary Evarts called the attention of the British government to this violation of the treaty and claimed damages to the fishermen amounting to one hundred and five thousand dollars. The Newfoundland people asserted that the local laws had been violated by the American fishermen. Secretary Evarts claimed that local laws could not change a treaty or take away treaty rights. With this view the British government at first disagreed but later admitted the justice of the American position and an agreed indemnity of seventy-three thousand dollars was paid.

In the Senate Mr. Evarts was regarded as one of the ablest of the

Republican debaters and as one of the soundest lawyers. His speeches were sometimes remarkable on account of their long sentences, but it was admitted that his sentences, no matter how long, were never involved, but their meaning was always clear. After leaving the Senate Mr. Evarts returned to the practice of his profession in New York city.

JAMES GILLESPIE BLAINE

JAMES GILLESPIE BLAINE—Secretary of State from March 7, 1881, to December 19, 1881, and from March 7, 1889, to June 1, 1892. Born January 31, 1830, at Brownsville, Pennsylvania. Son of Ephraim and Marie (Gillespie) Blaine. Educated at Washington College, Pennsylvania. Married, in March, 1851, Miss Harriet Stanwood. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, January 27, 1893.

1858—Member Maine Legislature.
1863—Member national House of Representatives.
1869—Speaker House of Representatives.
1871—Speaker House of Representatives.
1873—Speaker House of Representatives.
1876—United States Senator.
1881—Secretary of State.
1889—Secretary of State.

For more than a quarter of a century James G. Blaine was a conspicuous figure in the political life of the United States, first as a representative in Congress from Maine, serving as Speaker of the House for six years, then as a member of the United States Senate and, lastly, as a cabinet minister. Several times he was before the national conventions of his party for the nomination of President and in 1884 was successful in securing the coveted nomination, but was defeated before the people.

The immediate ancestors of Mr. Blaine had been prominent for many years in the immediate section in which they lived, his grandfather having served with distinction during the War of the Revolution. They were Scotch-Irish, and the distinguished statesman inherited many of their traits. During the first ten years of his life young Blaine lived with his father, occasionally attending a school in the neighborhood. In 1839 he spent some months in the family of his uncle, Thomas Ewing, at Lancaster, Ohio, attending the academy at that place. Returning to Pennsylvania he entered Washington College and graduated in 1847. Soon after leaving college he went to Kentucky and became a teacher in the Kentucky Military Academy at Lexington. In 1852 he became a teacher in the Pennsylvania Institute for the Blind at Philadelphia, where he remained until 1854, when he became editor and part owner of the Kennebec *Journal*, a weekly paper published at Augusta, Maine.

As an editor Mr. Blaine soon acquired a reputation for clear, forcible and pungent writing. In those days all newspapers were political organs of one party or another, and the strength of the editorials of Mr.

Blaine soon attracted the attention of the leaders of the Republican party in Maine and it was not long until he was classed among the local leaders of that party. It was at a time when slavery was the absorbing issue and Mr. Blaine became an energetic and pronounced opponent of the extension of slave territory and, of course, equally in earnest in opposing the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. In 1856, when he had been a resident of Maine but two years, he was sent as a delegate to the first Republican National Convention. His choice among all the candidates for the nomination was Justice McLean, of Ohio, but when Colonel Fremont received the nomination Mr. Blaine became one of his enthusiastic supporters.

During that exciting campaign he took the stump and established his reputation of being equally forcible as a speaker and a writer on political topics. In October of that year he became editor of the *Advertiser,* a daily paper published at Portland, although he still held his home at Augusta. The connection with the *Advertiser* largely extended his acquaintance and widened his sphere of influence in the state. In 1858 he was elected to the state legislature by the people of Augusta and served four years, the last two as speaker of the House.

In 1860 he was again a delegate to the Republican National Convention and was a supporter of Mr. Lincoln in the convention as against Mr. Seward. During the campaign which followed he was an energetic advocate of the extreme Republican doctrine. In 1862 he was nominated for Congress by his party and duly elected. At the time Mr. Blaine entered Congress President Lincoln was the center of a storm of criticism both from his political enemies and his party friends. The Civil War had been raging for several months and the Union cause had met with a number of disastrous defeats. Mr. Blaine placed himself at once among the defenders of the President and became his enthusiastic champion.

Mr. Blaine served twelve years in the House, six of them as Speaker, and was always the advocate of the most vigorous prosecution of the war and of the congressional plan of reconstruction. Among other members of Congress he was accused with being connected with the Credit Mobilier scandal, but was able to prove he had never had anything to do with the stock or bonds of that company, or with those of the Union Pacific Railroad, of which the Credit Mobilier was the builder. Later he was accused of having received sixty-seven thousand dollars from the Pacific Railroad Company for services rendered in his capacity as a member of the House of Representatives. This accusation gave occasion for one of the most dramatic scenes ever witnessed in the House.

A sub-committee of the House Committee on the Judiciary was appointed to investigate the charge. The investigation was held during the summer of 1876 when Mr. Blaine was a prominent candidate for the Republican presidential nomination. Representative Proctor Knott,

of Kentucky, was the chairman of the sub-committee. In the course of his speech in his own defense, Mr. Blaine dramatically charged that Representative Knott had received a telegram from an important witness completely clearing him of the charge and had suppressed it. The effect was dramatic in the extreme.

In 1876 Mr. Blaine was again elected a member of the House, but on the resignation of Senator Lot M. Morrill he was chosen to fill the vacancy. He remained in the Senate until March, 1881, when he resigned to become Secretary of State in the cabinet of President Garfield. In 1876 Mr. Blaine had been a prominent candidate before the Republican National Convention for the presidential nomination, but after a long struggle the nomination was given to Mr. Hayes. He was again before the convention in 1880. At that convention a most determined effort was made to nominate General Grant for a third term. The contest was long, extending over several days, when the friends of Mr. Blaine gave their votes to General Garfield, and he was nominated and elected.

Mr. Blaine and General Garfield had long been friends and had served together in the House. Mr. Blaine, though defeated for the nomination, was regarded as the real leader of the party, so it surprised no one when the new President gave the chief place in the cabinet to the senator from Maine. One of the first acts of his administration as Secretary of State was to propose issuing an invitation to all the Latin republics of America to unite with the United States in a grand peace congress at Washington, where the chief object would be to devise some plan whereby wars between American nations might be averted in the future. This scheme was not original with Secretary Blaine, it having been previously advocated by President John Quincy Adams, when such a meeting was planned at Panama, the object being to offset the announced intentions of the "Holy Alliance," but the project met with such opposition in Congress that the United States did not send delegates to the Panama meeting.

When Secretary Blaine revived the project Chili, Peru and Bolivia were engaged in a war, and Mr. Blaine interested himself in securing a peace between those countries. France made overtures for concerted action by France, Great Britain and the United States in the matter of securing peace in South America. Secretary Blaine courteously but firmly rejected the overtures, with a reminder that the United States had not belonged to that system of governments of which France and Great Britain were important members and had never participated, or desired to participate, in the adjustment of their contentions, but the United States regarded the republics of America as younger sisters and did not require, or desire, any European country to have any part in the settlement of any of their differences. Owing to the assassination of President Garfield the proposed peace conference was not held at that time.

The same warning signal was hoisted over the Isthmus of Panama. The European powers were considering a joint guarantee of the interoceanic canal then being constructed by a French company. Secretary Blaine promptly notified them that every step deemed requisite had been taken by this government and required no reinforcement accession or assent from any other power, and that any action on the part of any other government towards supplementing the guarantee already given by the United States would be regarded as an uncalled for intrusion. Emphasis was laid on the fact that this was not the development of a new course of aggressive measures, but was simply an adherence by the United States to a principle long before announced, and had long been an important part of our national policy.

The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty had long been regarded as an obstacle in the way of our government in its dealings with the Central American states, and Secretary Blaine instructed our minister to Great Britain to suggest the desirability of essentially modifying that treaty, and his argument on that question is regarded as one of the ablest state papers ever issued by our State Department. He pointed out that under the treaty the great naval power of Great Britain was left perfectly unrestrained, while the United States was prevented from using her unlimited land military strength.

The government having received information that Great Britain was endeavoring to insinuate herself with Hawaii with a view to break down the American influence in that island, Secretary Blaine hastened to assure the government of Hawaii that the United States would not permit, under any circumstances, the transfer of the sovereignty or the territory of the islands to any European power. This energetic action of the Secretary of State brought to an end the British scheme.

From the time President Garfield was stricken down by the bullet of the assassin until Vice President Arthur became President, Secretary Blaine was practically the head of the government, the stricken President relying wholly upon his friend and premier. After the death of President Garfield Mr. Blaine was invited by Congress to deliver before a joint session of the Senate and House a eulogy on the late President.

Mr. Blaine retained the office of Secretary of State after the accession of President Arthur until December 19, 1881. About a month after Mr. Arthur became President, at the suggestion of Secretary Blaine, he issued an invitation to all the independent governments of North America and South America to participate in a general conference to be held in Washington on November 24, 1882. The invitations were practically recalled by Mr. Frelinghuysen, who succeeded Mr. Blaine as head of the State Department.

After leaving the State Department Mr. Blaine set about the preparation and publication of a history of his twenty years in Congress. This was interrupted by his nomination in 1884 for the presidency. A

most exciting campaign followed his nomination, resulting in the election of Grover Cleveland, the candidate of the Democratic party. In 1887 Mr. Blaine visited Europe to recover his health which had been somewhat impaired by his active public life. His friends were still insistent he should again be the party nominee in 1888, but from Europe he wrote a letter that his name would not be presented to the convention; to that resolution he remained steadfast and General Harrison was nominated. Mr. Blaine returned home and took an active part in the campaign which followed.

In January, 1889, President-elect Harrison tendered to Mr. Blaine the position of Secretary of State, which was accepted, and immediately after the inauguration his name was sent to the Senate. On entering once more on the discharge of the duties as head of the State Department he found awaiting him a very delicate and difficult question. American interests in the island of Samoa had become entangled by the action of Germany. Six German vessels of war had entered Apia and the American flag had been hauled down. This action on the part of Germany aroused intense indignation in this country and a conference was opened in Washington in June, 1887, but adjourned without accomplishing anything. Germany then notified the United States that war had been declared against Samoa and martial law established. Many Americans were subjected to frequent annoyances. This added to the indignation already existing in this country. Germany proposed a renewal of the conference of 1887, but suggested it be held in Berlin instead of Washington. Secretary Bayard accepted the proposal. There the affair stood when Mr. Blaine became Secretary of State.

Germany was disposed to be both obstinate and arbitrary, and at one time the American commissioners deemed it impossible for the conference to reach a conclusion without a compromise, and in their communication to Secretary Blaine stated that Bismarck "was very angry." Mr. Blaine curtly replied by cable that "the extent of the chancellor's irritability is not a measure of the American rights." This brought the German chancellor to terms and a satisfactory arrangement was reached wherein every condition contended for by the United States was agreed to.

The seal fisheries of Alaska were another source of trouble. At the opening of the question the British ministry were disposed to claim everything and demand everything. This, too, was brought to an amicable settlement under the direction of Secretary Blaine. On March 14, 1891, a mob at New Orleans attacked and murdered several persons who had been acquitted by the courts of the crime charged against them, but were still in prison under the protection of the authorities. Among them were three Italians. This threatened for a time to break the long friendship between the two countries, but was brought to an amicable conclusion. The United States was also involved in a controversy with Chili, owing to an attack of a mob in

Valparaiso on some American sailors. This, too, was amicably adjusted. On October 2, 1889, Secretary Blaine was able to meet the delegates from the independent governments of North America and South America in the long-delayed international conference.

In 1892 Mr. Blaine decided to let his name go before the Republican convention as a candidate for the presidential nomination and he resigned his seat in the cabinet.

FREDERICK THEODORE FRELINGHUYSEN

FREDERICK T. FRELINGHUYSEN—Secretary of State from December 19, 1881, to March 6, 1885. Born in Millstone, New Jersey, August 4, 1817. Son of Frederick and Jane (Dumont) Frelinghuysen. Educated at Rutgers College. Died in Newark, New Jersey, May 20, 1885.

1861—Attorney General of New Jersey.
1866—United States Senator.
1871—United States Senator.
1881—Secretary of State.

The Frelinghuysen family was one of the oldest in New Jersey and was prominent in the affairs of the state. The father of the future senator and cabinet minister served four terms as a delegate to the Continental Congress. He was a gallant soldier in the Revolutionary Army, serving first as captain of a company and later as colonel of a regiment. President Washington appointed him a brigadier general in the campaign against the Western Indians. In 1793 he was elected to the United States Senate.

Frederick T. made a brilliant record at Rutgers College, graduating in 1836. Three years later he was admitted to the bar and for twenty years was one of the leading lawyers of New Jersey. In 1861 he was appointed attorney general of the state. In 1866 he was sent to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy caused by the death of Senator William Wright and served from November 12, 1866, to March 3, 1869.

In 1870 President Grant nominated him as minister to Great Britain. The nomination was strongly opposed by Senators Sumner and Wilson. The nomination was finally confirmed, but the opposition that had been made to his confirmation caused him to decline the office. In 1871 he was again sent to the United States Senate and served from March 4, 1871, to March 3, 1877. He distinguished himself during this service by his strong advocacy of civil rights, for a gold standard, and for the bill to suppress polygamy among the Mormons.

On the resignation of Secretary of State Blaine, in December, 1881, President Arthur called Mr. Frelinghuysen to take the head of the State Department. Among his first acts as Secretary of State was to

practically recall the invitations that had been sent by Secretary Blaine to the governments of the South and Central American republics and to Mexico to meet in a grand peace congress in Washington. This congress was not held until Mr. Blaine was again Secretary of State in the administration of President Benjamin Harrison.

THOMAS FRANCIS BAYARD

THOMAS FRANCIS BAYARD—Secretary of State from March 7, 1885, to March 6, 1889. Born in Wilmington, Delaware, October 29, 1828. Son of James Asheton Bayard, Jr. Academic education. Died in Dedham, Massachusetts, September 28, 1898.

1853—United States Attorney for Delaware.
1869—United States Senator.
1876—Member of the Electoral Commission.
1885—Secretary of State.
1893—Minister to Great Britain.

The Bayard family was a noted one in the political history of Delaware, four members of the family having served in the United States Senate at various times. The father, grandfather and great uncle of Thomas Francis preceded him as members of that highest legislative body. Thomas Francis was first intended for a mercantile life, but following in the footsteps of his ancestors he became a lawyer and was admitted to the bar in 1851. He began the practice at Wilmington, his native city, but a few years later removed to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. He only remained in that state for about two years when he returned to Wilmington.

Before he removed to Philadelphia he served for two years as United States Attorney for Delaware. He relocated at Wilmington in 1856, and soon took rank among the leading members of the bar, commanding a wide practice. He was active in political matters, as his immediate ancestors had been, and in 1869 was elected a member of the United States Senate, succeeding his father.

He served in the Senate until 1881 and during nearly all that time was regarded as one of the leaders of his party in that body. He entered the Senate at a troublous time, it being the period of reconstruction of the lately seceding states. It was a contest that went on for years, Mr. Bayard always opposing the extreme measures of the Republicans. He took a leading part in all the debates. He was a ready and forceful speaker and was specially strong on all questions where the Constitution was involved.

In 1887 he was one of the senatorial members of the joint electoral commission to decide the contest between Hayes and Tilden. What took place in the secret sessions of that commission has never been divulged, but doubtless Senator Bayard was one of the strong members who

favored the cause of Mr. Tilden. He thoroughly enjoyed his service in the Senate and often in later life expressed his regret that he did not remain a member.

In 1881, at the close of sixteen years' service, he returned to Wilmington and again engaged in the practice of his profession until he was called into the cabinet by President Cleveland and placed at the head of the State Department. He served through the administration, but was not happy in the position, for he was constantly finding himself in antagonism to the iron will of the President. His acquiescence in many of the policies demanded by Mr. Cleveland subjected him frequently to severe criticisms even by his party friends as well as to those of his political enemies.

At the opening of Cleveland's second administration Mr. Bayard was tendered and accepted the appointment as minister to Great Britain. In this position he was as unhappy as he had been in the cabinet. His conduct while in London, and especially some of the speeches he made while there, subjected him to harsh criticism and his speeches were censured by the House of Representatives. He died a few months after his return to America.

Mr. Bayard was ambitious to be President, and three times his name was presented to the Democratic National Convention—in 1876, 1880 and 1884. In 1876 for some time it was generally believed he would be the choice of his party, but the sentiment finally crystalized around Mr. Tilden. While ambitious for the high honor of leading his party in a presidential race Mr. Bayard would never make an open fight for the position, holding that the nomination must come to him as the free and unbiased gift of his party. In all political matters he was a purist.

JOHN WATSON FOSTER

JOHN W. FOSTER—Secretary of State from June 29, 1892, to February 23, 1893. Born in Pike county, Indiana, March 3, 1836. Son of Matthew and Eleanor (Johnson) Foster. Educated at Indiana University. Married, in 1859, Mary Parker McPherson. Died at Washington, District of Columbia, November 15, 1917.

1873—Minister to Mexico.
1880—Minister to Russia.
1883—Minister to Spain.
1891—Special Envoy to Spain.
1892—Secretary of State.
1893—Agent of the United States before Bering Sea Tribunal at Paris.
1894—Peace Commissioner on the part of China with Japan.
1898—Member Joint High Commission on Alaskan Boundary.
1906—Representative of China at The Hague Conference.

Few men in American history had a more varied diplomatic career than Colonel John W. Foster, who served for a short time as Secretary

of State in the cabinet of President Benjamin Harrison. He was born on a farm in Pike county, Indiana, and after receiving a preliminary education in the public schools of Evansville, that state, entered Indiana State University, graduating in 1853 as the valedictorian of his class. Leaving the Indiana University he took a course of law at Harvard College and was admitted to the bar when he was twenty-one years of age.

He practiced his profession at Evansville until the breaking out of the Civil War, when he offered his services to the Governor of Indiana and was commissioned major of the twenty-fifth Indiana regiment of volunteers. For gallant services he was promoted from time to time until he reached the command of a division of cavalry. In his army service he made the acquaintance of General Grant, who was impressed with his soldierly ability.

After the close of the war he drifted into journalism and became editor of the leading Republican paper of Southern Indiana. Becoming deeply interested in political affairs he became chairman of the Republican state committee during the campaign of 1872. As such chairman he was intimately associated with the late Senator Oliver P. Morton, who became his fast friend. In 1873, on the request of Senator Morton, President Grant appointed Mr. Foster minister to Mexico, a position he held for seven years, securing and holding the confidence and respect of the Mexican people and government. As soon as he arrived in Mexico he addressed himself to the task of learning to read and speak the Spanish language.

He was in Mexico when Porfiro Diaz overturned the existing government. Minister Foster at once recognized the great ability of General Diaz and believed, if sustained, he would bring order to the distracted people of Mexico. He urged upon the government at Washington these views and recommended the recognition of the Diaz government by the United States, but President Hayes hesitated, finally calling Colonel Foster to Washington for consultation. He was at last able to convince the President and Secretary of State Evarts, and the Diaz government was formally recognized after it had been in power for a period of sixteen months. In 1883, when President Diaz visited the United States, Colonel Foster was selected by President Arthur to receive him as his personal representative.

In 1880 Colonel Foster was transferred from Mexico to Russia and was in that country at the time of the assassination of Alexander II. From Russia he was sent to Spain in 1883. On the accession of President Cleveland in 1885 he requested Colonel Foster to remain in Spain until the conclusion of certain treaties then being negotiated with that country. Returning to America Mr. Foster entered upon the practice of international law and was employed by several of the South American republics. In 1891 President Benjamin Harrison sent him once

more to Spain, as special envoy, to negotiate reciprocity treaties, especially as to the trade with Cuba and Porto Rico, in which he was successful. The revenue act of 1890 provided for the negotiation of reciprocity treaties and all negotiations along those lines were placed by the President in the hands of Colonel Foster. While so engaged he was appointed to take charge of the negotiations with Great Britain as to the jurisdiction of the Bering Sea, especially as to the protection of the seals.

When placed at the head of the Department of State he found the business of the department much in arrears, owing to the long continued ill health of his predecessor. Many treaties that had been negotiated a long time were pending before the Senate committees. Before the close of his services as Secretary all the affairs pending before the Senate were satisfactorily completed. He drafted a treaty for the annexation of Hawaii, but it failed of ratification by the Senate and was later withdrawn by President Cleveland.

In 1894 he was employed by the government of China to assist her envoys in the peace negotiations with Japan, an employment which brought him much credit with other countries. In 1897 President McKinley appointed him special envoy to London and St. Petersburg to secure a concert of action as to the protection of the seals in Bering Sea. In 1898 he was made a member of the joint high commission to define the Alaskan boundary and was made the agent of the government to prepare the case on the part of the United States for presentation before the arbitration tribunal. In 1906 he was the representative of China at the second Hague Conference. President McKinley desired him to go to Spain and Turkey as special envoy, but this mission was declined. Colonel Foster resided in Washington city from 1885 until his death, November 15, 1917. He wrote several volumes on diplomatic affairs.

WALTER QUINTON GRESHAM

WALTER Q. GRESHAM—Postmaster General from April 11, 1883, to September 24, 1884; Secretary of the Treasury from September 25, 1884, to October 29, 1884; Secretary of State from March 7, 1893, to May 28, 1895. Born on a farm in Harrison county, Indiana, March 17, 1833. Son of William and Sara K. (Davis) Gresham. Married, February 18, 1858, Miss Matilda McGann. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, May 28, 1895.

1863—Brigadier General of Volunteers.
1869—United States Judge for Indiana District.
1883—Postmaster General.
1884—Secretary of the Treasury.
1884—United States Judge for the Seventh Circuit.
1893—Secretary of State.

Born on a farm among the hills of Southern Indiana, Walter Quinton Gresham rose to distinction by his own unaided efforts. When Walter was but twelve years old he was thrown upon his own resources, his father, who was sheriff of the county, being killed by a desperado he was attempting to arrest. Young Walter had attended the country schools a few months in each year, while assisting in the work of the farm, but had no systematic course of schooling. On the death of his father, to aid his widowed mother, he became a clerk in one of the offices of the county and applied himself to such desultory studying as he could when not engaged in his clerical duties. By close economy he was able to save enough from his slender salary to give him one year at the State University at Bloomington.

He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1854 and began the practice in the little town of Corydon. It was just at the time of the break-up in political parties, the Whigs ceasing to be a political factor and the Democrats dividing on the slavery question. The Know-nothing party was quite strong in Harrison county and nominated Mr. Gresham as their candidate for clerk of the county, but he was defeated at the polls. On the organization of the Republican party he united with it and, although not seeking office, became one of the leaders of the new party in his county.

Soon after the breaking out of the Civil War he aided in recruiting a regiment, and was made its lieutenant colonel. A sudden call for troops being made the regiment was consolidated with another and Mr. Gresham was made colonel of the consolidated regiment. He served under General Grant in the campaign against Vicksburg, winning the approbation of that commander and forming with him a warm and lasting personal friendship. On the recommendation of General Grant, Colonel Gresham was promoted to the rank of brigadier general. During the Atlanta campaign he commanded a division and was desperately wounded at the battle of Kennesaw Mountain.

After the war he was twice nominated by the Republicans of his district for Congress, but as the district was Democratic by a large majority he was defeated in each race. Soon after the accession of General Grant to the presidency a vacancy occurred in the United States Court for the District of Indiana and the President promptly nominated General Gresham for the vacancy. As a judge Mr. Gresham won a reputation for his fearlessness and for his utter disregard of technicalities in trying a case.

Mr. Gresham was on the bench when President Arthur, in 1883, offered him a seat in his cabinet as Postmaster General. As head of the Postoffice Department Mr. Gresham issued an order forbidding the delivery of mail to a national bank in New Orleans that was acting as the receiving agent for the New Orleans lottery, a financial operation the government was endeavoring to suppress. This order was severely

criticized and was finally withdrawn. On the death of Secretary of the Treasury Folger, in 1884, President Arthur transferred Postmaster General Gresham to the head of the Treasury Department. He held this position but one month, when he was appointed United States judge for the Seventh Circuit.

In 1884 the name of Judge Gresham was broached as a possible candidate for the presidential nomination by the Republicans, but was not presented to the convention. Soon after the election his friends began an active campaign for his nomination in 1888, and in the convention of that year he received a large vote, but was unsuccessful in securing the coveted prize. He soon after began to affiliate with the Democrats and when President Cleveland began his second term he selected Judge Gresham for the head of the cabinet as Secretary of State. As Secretary of State Mr. Gresham was instrumental in inducing the President to withdraw from the Senate the pending treaty negotiated by his predecessor for the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands. The administration of the State Department by Mr. Gresham was much criticized by leading members of both political parties.

RICHARD OLNEY

RICHARD OLNEY—Attorney General from March 7, 1893, to June 9, 1895; Secretary of State from June 10, 1895, to March 5, 1897. Born in Oxford, Massachusetts, September 15, 1835. Son of William and Eliza L. (Butler) Olney. Educated at Brown University. Married March 6, 1861, Agnes P. Thomas. Died February 8, 1917.

1874—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1893—Attorney General of the United States.
1895—Secretary of State.

Mr. Olney was admitted to the bar in 1859, three years after graduating from Brown University. For several years before becoming Attorney General in the cabinet of President Cleveland he was regarded as one of the foremost lawyers of New England. As a member of the cabinet he quickly demonstrated that he was a courageous statesman, filled with the American policy. As Attorney General he was persistent in seeing, so far as was in his power, that the laws of the United States were observed and those guilty of violations punished.

As Secretary of State he put an end to the long standing boundary dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain, by re-enunciating the Monroe Doctrine in stronger and broader terms than had ever been given to it before his time. He asserted that a nation may avail itself of the right to interfere in the disputes of other nations whenever what is done, or proposed to be done, by any of the parties is a menace to its own integrity, tranquility or welfare. This bold assertion of the position of the United States practically forced Great Britain to agree to arbitrate the boundary question.

After leaving the cabinet at the close of the administration of President Cleveland, Mr. Olney returned to Boston and resumed the practice of his profession. Although not taking a very active part in political matters he was regarded as one of the leaders of the Democratic party in Massachusetts, especially of the wing of the party that opposed the free coinage of silver.

WILLIAM RUFUS DAY

WILLIAM RUFUS DAY—Secretary of State from April 28, 1898, to September 16, 1898. Born in Ravenna, Ohio, April 17, 1849. Son of Luther and Emily (Spalding) Day. Educated at Ann Arbor (Michigan) University. Married, in 1875, Mary E. Schaefer. Died July 9, 1923, at Mackinaw Islands, Michigan.

1886—Judge of the Ohio Court of Common Pleas.
1897—Assistant Secretary of State.
1898—Secretary of State.
1898—Member Spanish Peace Commission.
1899—United States Judge for the Sixth Circuit.
1906—Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.

The father of the future Secretary of State and Associate Justice of the Supreme Court was an eminent jurist, and served two terms on the bench of the Ohio Supreme Court. After graduating from Ann Harbor University in 1870 William Rufus studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1872. He began the practice of his profession at Canton, Ohio, the home of William McKinley, afterward President of the United States. It was there a friendship was formed between the two distinguished men which lasted until the death of Mr. McKinley.

Mr. Day rapidly forged to the front as a successful lawyer and in 1886 was elected judge of the Common Pleas Court. He served in that position but two years, resigning to return to the active practice of his profession. In 1889 President Benjamin Harrison tendered him the appointment of United States judge for the Northern District of Ohio, but his health at that time being precarious, the tender was declined.

On the accession of Mr. McKinley to the presidency in 1897 he urged Judge Day to accept the position of Assistant Secretary of State under Secretary John Sherman. To this Judge Day reluctantly consented. On the resignation of the State Department by Mr. Sherman, Mr. Day was named as Secretary. As Secretary of State he signed the protocol with Spain for the suspension of the war. The protocol called for the appointment of a commission by each government to arrange terms of peace. Secretary Day was appointed one of the commission on the part of the United States and signed the peace treaty at Paris.

Shortly after his return to the United States he was appointed United States judge for the Sixth Circuit, and in February, 1906, was made Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

JOHN HAY

JOHN HAY—Secretary of State from September 30, 1898, to July 10, 1905. Born at Salem, Indiana, October 8, 1838. Son of Charles and Helen (Leonard) Hay. Educated at Brown University. Married, February 4, 1874, Clara L. Stone. Died at Newberry, Massachusetts, July 10, 1905.

1861—Assistant Secretary to President Lincoln.
1865—Secretary of Legation at Paris.
1867—Secretary of Legation and Charge d'Affairs at Vienna.
1869—Secretary of Legation at Madrid.
1879—Assistant Secretary of State.
1897—Ambassador to London.
1898—Secretary of State.

It is doubtful if anyone ever called to the head of the American State Department accomplished more than did John Hay. He graduated from Brown University in 1858, and began the study of law in Springfield, Illinois, in the office of an intimate friend of Abraham Lincoln. During the political campaign of 1860 which made Mr. Lincoln President of the United States, Mr. Hay, although a law student, took an active part and frequently assisted Mr. Lincoln in his large correspondence, especially between the election and his departure from Springfield for Washington.

When Mr. Lincoln departed from Springfied to become President he offered Mr. Hay the position of assistant secretary. It was a grand opportunity for an aspiring young man and the offer was promptly accepted. During the entire administration of President Lincoln his young secretary occupied the most intimate and confidential relations with his chief, the President learning to rely upon his loyalty and discretion.

During a portion of the time of the Civil War Mr. Hay was at the front, acting as adjutant and aide on the staff, first of General Hunter and later on that of General Gilmore. In 1865, shortly after the assassination of President Lincoln, Mr. Hay was appointed secretary of legation at Paris and for the next five years was closely identified with our diplomatic relations abroad, first at Paris and then at Vienna and Madrid. In 1870 Mr. Hay returned to the United States and became an editorial writer on the New York *Tribune*, displaying remarkable brilliancy and versatility as a writer. He remained with the *Tribune* for five years and then removed to Cleveland, Ohio, engaging in literary work. In 1879 he was made Assistant Secretary of State under Secretary Evarts.

For a time he was again connected editorially with the New York *Tribune*. President McKinley sent him as ambassador to London in

1897, where he became exceedingly popular with the British officials and with the other members of the diplomatic corps in London. He served in London about eighteen months when he was recalled by President McKinley to become the head of the State Department.

For seven years he filled this office with distinguished ability and to the credit of the country. Soon after taking this office he announced that the Golden Rule was to be the standard of diplomacy observed by the Department of State. In 1898 he secured a *modus vivendi* with Great Britain for a temporary boundary line between Alaska and the British possessions in America without conceding any seaport rights to Canada. In 1899 he skillfully conducted negotiations so as to secure the "open door" in China. To retain China as one of our customers Secretary Hay, aided by the prestige gained by the United States during the war with Spain, induced Japan and the powers of Europe to join in a declaration to observe the "open door" policy in the celestial empire. This move, of great national and international importance, gave the United States a prominence in the East which it held throughout the Boxer trouble.

In view of the critical condition of affairs in China, Secretary Hay deemed it advisable to enunciate the policy the United States would pursue. He did this in the hope of obtaining the adherence of the other nations thereto. His note, dated July 3, 1900, sent to the other powers, was the most important diplomatic move in the entire Chinese matter. While stating the purpose of the United States to be the relief and protection of American interests he reiterated the principles of Chinese territorial and administrative entity, protection of treaty rights and the preservation of the "open door." By this prompt and strong presentation of the purposes of the United States he saved the autonomy of the Chinese empire by forcing the hands of the European governments and securing from them a pledge that the integrity of the empire should be maintained and respected.

During the Boer War he was instrumental in preventing a concerted attack on England by the European powers. His note on the "Pacific Blockade" set up by Great Britain, Germany and Italy in their dispute with Venezuela effectually broke up that practice of coercing weaker governments. By treaty he secured the revocation of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty and thus opened the way for the construction by the United States government of an interoceanic canal. The first convention negotiated by him for the abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty was rejected by the United States Senate, but with perfect good humor he at once began a new negotiation.

He was the leading mind in all the negotiations for the construction of the Isthmian Canal. He secured from the minister of Colombia a tentative agreement for a treaty in which Colombia gave her consent

for the transfer of the rights of the French Canal Company to the United States, and then negotiated a treaty whereby the United States should construct such a canal. This treaty was rejected by Colombia. On the secession of Panama from Colombia, Secretary Hay at once effected a treaty with the new republic, the treaty under which the canal has been constructed.

During his services as head of the State Department he negotiated or was mainly instrumental in the negotiation of more than fifty successful treaties. Probably no act of his while Secretary of State showed so fully his method of diplomacy than his short and emphatic despatch to the Moroccan government in June, 1904. Ion Perdicaris, an American citizen temporarily in Morocco, was captured by a noted bandit, Raisuli, taken to the mountains and held for ransom. Secretary Hay promptly called the attention of the Moroccan government to the capture and demanded of that government prompt steps to secure the release of the American. The Moroccan government not moving as promptly and energetically as Secretary Hay desired, he sent the following cablegram: "We want either Perdicaris alive or Raisuli dead." This brought action and Perdicaris was quickly released.

Mr. Hay was a man of large literary acquirements. Among his other literary work the "Life of Abraham Lincoln," written in collaboration with John G. Nicolai, takes the highest rank among works of biography. His "Pike County Ballads" are very popular, and his "Old Castilian Days" is counted among the best of his literary writings.

ELIHU ROOT

ELIHU ROOT—Secretary of War from August 1, 1899, to January 31, 1904; Secretary of State from July 9, 1905, to January 22, 1909. Born in Clinton, New York, February 15, 1846. Son of Oren and Nancy W. (Butterick) Root. Educated at Hamilton College. Married, January 8, 1876, Clara Howe Wales.

1883—United States Attorney for Southern New York.
1893—Member New York Constitutional Convention.
1899—Secretary of War.
1905—Secretary of State.
1909—United States Senator.

After graduating from Hamilton College, in which his father was a professor of mathematics, Mr. Root taught for a time in the Rome Academy. He graduated from the law department of the University of the City of New York in 1867, and at once entered upon the practice of his profession. His first important case was as an assistant in the prosecution of the Tweed Ring and won a high reputation from his connection with that great case as a skillful lawyer. He became the

personal counsel of the late President Arthur while Mr. Arthur was collector of the port of New York, and retained that intimate relation until the death of his client. When Mr. Arthur became President he appointed Mr. Root as United States Attorney for the Southern District of New York. In that capacity he was instrumental in securing the conviction and punishment by prison sentence of James D. Fish, president of a leading New York financial institution, for his connection with the operations of the firm of Grant & Ward.

On the resignation of Secretary of War Alger, President McKinley appointed Mr. Root to the vacancy. He found the department in great confusion on account of the differences between General Miles, commander-in-chief of the army, and the former head of the department. Secretary Root applied himself energetically to bring harmony into the department and put an end to the friction that had long existed and was, as he believed, working against the best interests of the department and, in part, paralyzing the efforts of the army in the field. He restored General Miles to his rightful position as commander-in-chief of the army. He injected new energy into every branch of the service, both in the department and in the field, especially in the conduct of affairs in the Philippines, increasing the force in those islands to seventy thousand men.

He reported a plan for the civil government of the Philippines under the direction of officers of the army and a code for Porto Rico. In 1900 occurred the Boxer outbreak in China, and by the energetic action of Secretary Root the American forces in the celestial kingdom took the lead. In 1898 Spain relinquished all authority over the island of Cuba, leaving the United States with a difficult question to handle. At the time the people of Cuba could not be left wholly to themselves, nor was it the policy of the administration to annex the island nor assume anything more than a protectorate until Cuba could form a stable government of its own. The question was left largely to the War Department, and Secretary Root assumed temporary control of the island, bringing peace and smoothing the way for the establishment of a Cuban government.

In 1902 occurred the great strike among the anthracite coal miners in Pennsylvania. The business of the whole country was demoralized. Many efforts were made to bring about an end of the strike and a resumption of mining, but without success. Although it was no part of his duties as a cabinet minister, yet Secretary Root interested himself and in so doing performed a great service to the public. He had an interview with J. P. Morgan, who was in control of the finances of the coal-carrying roads, and laid before him a plan of settlement of the differences between the miners and the operators, inducing Mr. Morgan and other financial men connected with roads to ask President Roose-

velt to appoint a commission of arbitration. On the request of these men the President appointed a commission and the great strike was soon brought to an end. The ending of the strike was, in the main, due to the initiatory movement of Secretary Root.

Among his other services while at the head of the War Department was the reorganization of the entire military system, doing away with the anomalous position of commander-in-chief of the army and introducing a general staff. For sixty years or more there had been constant friction between the department and the head of the army. It had caused General Winfield Scott to move the headquarters of the army to New York and General Sherman to move them to St. Louis. Grant, Sheridan and Schofield had all felt this friction and Secretary Root determined to get rid of it by abolishing the office of commander-in-chief.

In 1903 Mr. Root was appointed by the President a member of the Alaskan Boundary Commission. Resigning from the cabinet he returned to New York and resumed the practice of his profession, soon becoming interested in many of the important cases pending in the courts. By this time he was regarded as the head of the New York bar, his practice yielding him an income of two hundred thousand dollars a year.

On the death of Secretary of State Hay, President Roosevelt induced Mr. Root to give up this enormous practice and take the vacant place in his cabinet. As Secretary of State he soon introduced a number of reforms into the system of work in the department and in the consular service, making that service one of real benefit to the country. As head of the State Department he made an extended tour of the republics of South and Central America, the object being to bring those republics into closer relations of amity among themselves and with the United States. In this he was eminently successful.

He was instrumental in solving the financial difficulties of San Domingo and putting the government of that island in the way of discharging its monetary obligations to foreign countries. In this again emphasizing the American policy of the Monroe Doctrine, so strongly reannounced by Secretary Olney.

In 1909 he was elected a member of the United States Senate. In the Senate he was regarded as the mouthpiece of President Roosevelt and almost at once became one of the leaders of the Republicans in that body. He supported the Payne-Aldrich Tariff Bill and the plan of Senator Aldrich to reform the currency. In 1910 he acted as the counsel of the United States in the North Atlantic fisheries arbitration at The Hague.

In 1913 Senator Root was awarded the Nobel prize for having done more for international peace in the year 1912 than any other person. The award was made for his work in Cuba and the Philippines.

ROBERT BACON

ROBERT BACON—Secretary of State from January 27, 1909, to March 6, 1909. Born in Boston, Massachusetts, July 5, 1860. Son of William B. and Emily C. (Low) Bacon. Educated at Harvard College. Married, October 10, 1883, Miss Martha Waldron Cowdin. Died May 29, 1919, in New York.

1905—Assistant Secretary of State.
1909—Secretary of State.
1909—Ambassador to France.

Upon graduating from college and after a year spent in Europe, Mr. Bacon engaged in the banking business in Boston. After a very successful career he became, in 1894, a member of the great banking house of J. P. Morgan & Company, of New York. He remained a member of the firm until 1903. In 1905 he was appointed by President Roosevelt Assistant Secretary of State. There he displayed remarkable diplomatic ability and, on the retirement in 1909 of Secretary Root, he was made head of that department.

With the other members of the Roosevelt cabinet he retired from office on the accession of President Taft. In December, 1909, he was appointed ambassador to France. He served in France until 1912 when he resigned to devote his energies to his college, as fellow of the Harvard University Corporation.

When the United States entered the war against Germany, Mr. Bacon was commissioned a major in May, 1917. Going to France as a liaison officer with the French army, he later served on the staff of General Pershing. Returning to America after the signing of the armistice, he re-engaged in the war relief work in which he had been active before going overseas.

PHILANDER CHASE KNOX

PHILANDER C. KNOX—Attorney General from April 10, 1901, to July 1, 1904; Secretary of State from March 5, 1909, to March 4, 1913. Born in Brownsville, Pennsylvania, May 6, 1853. Son of David S. and Rebeka (Page) Knox. Educated at Mount Union College, Alliance, Ohio. Married, in 1880, Miss Lillie Smith. Died October 11, 1921.

1876—Assistant U. S. Attorney for Western District of Pennsylvania.
1901—Attorney General of the United States.
1904—United States Senator.
1909—Secretary of State.
1916—United States Senator.

Adopting law as his profession Mr. Knox was admitted to the bar in 1875 and at once began the practice at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Developing a superior knowledge of the law he soon rose to distinction and commanded a very large and lucrative practice. Like most lawyers he early took great interest in political matters, but did not become an

office seeker. His talents as a speaker and a thinker were so pronounced that his party eagerly sought his services on the stump.

In 1901, when President McKinley was looking for a fit person to hold the office of Attorney General in his cabinet, to take the place made vacant by the resignation of John W. Griggs, his choice fell upon Mr. Knox. It was an office in the line of his chosen profession and after much thought Mr. Knox accepted the appointment. He was retained in that position by President Roosevelt. As Attorney General he added to his already high reputation as a lawyer.

He resigned on June 30, 1904, to accept an appointment to the United States Senate to fill the vacancy occasioned by the death of Senator Quay. He was elected to a full term, but resigned March 4, 1909, to accept the position of Secretary of State in the cabinet of President Taft.

At that time there were several perplexing questions with Mexico and other foreign countries and it was believed Mr. Knox was the fittest man in the country to handle them. After his nomination and before taking the office a newspaper correspondent called attention to the fact that Mr. Knox was barred from holding that office because while a member of the Senate that body had voted an increase of pay to members of the cabinet, including Secretary of State. So earnest was Mr. Taft in desiring Mr. Knox for the office that a joint resolution was passed by the Senate and House of Representatives reducing the salary of the Secretary of State to eight thousand dollars, the amount allowed before the increase voted by Congress. It was believed that reduction would permit the senator to hold the secretaryship without any question as to his eligibility.

While Secretary of State Mr. Knox made a tour of the South American republics in the interest of awakening a better feeling between the United States and those republics. The tour was eminently successful, the Secretary meeting with a cordial welcome everywhere.

On retiring from the cabinet at the close of President Taft's administration Mr. Knox resumed the practice of law at Pittsburgh, but he was not permitted long to remain in private life. In 1916 he once more became a member of the United States Senate, remaining a member until his death in 1921.

In the Senate he vigorously opposed the proposition for the United States to enter into the proposed League of Nations.

WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN

WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN—Secretary of State from March 5, 1913, to June 22, 1915. Born in Salem, Illinois, March 19, 1860. Son of Silas L. and Maria (Jennings) Bryan. Attended the public schools and Whipple Academy at Jacksonville, Illinois. Graduated from Illinois College, Jacksonville, in 1877. Attended Union College of Law, Chicago, for a period of two years. Married, October 1, 1884, Miss Mary Elizabeth Baird.

1891—Member national House of Representatives.
1893—Member national House of Representatives.
1896—Unsuccessful candidate for President.
1898—Colonel Volunteers in War with Spain.
1900—Unsuccessful candidate for President.
1908—Unsuccessful candidate for President.
1909—Secretary of State.

Few American statesmen have had a more picturesque career than William Jennings Bryan. Lawyer, member of Congress, editor, farmer, colonel in the army, unsuccessful candidate three times for the presidency and for twenty years the "peerless" leader of one of the great political parties of the country. Such has been his public career.

Not satisfied with his surroundings at Jacksonville and seeing brighter prospects in the Northwest, he removed in October, 1887, to Lincoln, Nebraska. A believer in the policies and theories of government as taught by the Democratic party he almost leaped into the party leadership in Lincoln.

A gifted orator, he soon made himself a power in the party and three years after his locating at Lincoln was nominated for Congress by his party and elected. Two years later he was again a successful candidate, thus serving two terms. While in Congress he made a speech on the tariff question which attracted attention throughout the country.

As the campaign for the presidency approached in 1896 one of the "burning" questions at issue was that of the currency. A demand had grown up for an increased coinage of silver at the old ratio of sixteen to one. Business throughout the country was greatly depressed and some of the statesmen claimed the depression was owing to what they denominated the demonetization of silver.

The Democratic National Convention met in Chicago that year, with Mr. Bryan as one of the delegates from Nebraska. Such was the division of sentiment that many despaired of an amicable outcome. While this feeling was prevalent and great confusion existed, Mr. Bryan obtained the floor and made an impassioned speech. He seemed to have lighted a torch that almost at once became a conflagration. The convention was swept off its feet and Mr. Bryan was made the candidate of his party, dictating the platform on which he should stand.

He made an extended tour of the country addressing audiences such as no other politician since the days of Henry Clay had been able to draw. His canvass was remarkable in many ways, especially for the enthusiasm he appeared to arouse wherever he spoke.

At the time there was a third party in existence, known as "Populists"; and after the Republicans nominated a candidate on a "gold" platform a large number of those who had previously held to the Republican political faith withdrew from the party and organized the Silver Republicans. The Populists and Silver Republicans indorsed Mr. Bryan, but he was defeated at the election.

His campaign was so wonderful in 1896 that his party clung to him with a faith and enthusiasm that almost reached adoration and in 1900 again nominated him for the highest office in the nation. Another brilliant campaign followed but he was again defeated. The two successive defeats did not lessen him in the love of his party and he continued to be its leader without a rival. In 1908 he was nominated a third time, with the same final result as in 1896 and 1900.

He established a paper at Lincoln that reached a large circulation in every section of the country. He was a strong advocate of temperance, favoring the prohibition of alcoholic liquors by constitutional amendment. He also advocated government ownership to a large extent of public utilities.

As a delegation to the national convention of his party in 1912 he brought about the nomination of Mr. Wilson. The impression went abroad throughout the country that should Mr. Wilson be elected he would choose Mr. Bryan as cabinet premier. Mr. Wilson was elected and the impression in favor of Mr. Bryan became practically a party demand. Mr. Wilson yielded.

From the beginning of his administration there was a lack of harmony between the President and his premier. President Wilson had fallen heir to some very perplexing foreign problems. The chief was the situation in Mexico. In that country one revolution was following another with a rapidity that puzzled and confused all countries having intercourse with the republic south of us. Added to this, troubles were brewing in Europe that threatened the peace of the world.

The President sent the army and the navy to Mexico. This was in opposition to the advice of Mr. Bryan and friction was the result, but Mr. Bryan remained in the cabinet. War came in Europe and Secretary Bryan advocated one method of procedure on the part of this country and President Wilson followed another. This forced the resignation of Mr. Bryan.

After leaving the cabinet Mr. Bryan returned to Nebraska and resumed his editorial work. In 1921 he removed permanently to Florida.

ROBERT LANSING

ROBERT LANSING—Secretary of State from June 23, 1915, to February 14, 1920. Born at Watertown, New York, October 17, 1864. Son of John and Maria L. (Dodge) Lansing. Educated at Amherst College, graduating in 1886. Married, January 25, 1889, Miss Eleanor Foster.

1892—Counsel for the United States in Bering Sea Arbitration.
1896—Counsel for the United States in Bering Sea Claims Commission.
1903—Counsel for the United States in Alaskan Boundary Arbitration.
1908—Counsel for the United States in Atlantic Coast Fisheries Arbitration.

1911—Delegate to Convention for Moderation of the Fisheries Award.
1911—Technical Delegate to Fur Seal Conference.
1913—Agent of the United States in determining what claims with Great Britain should be arbitrated.
1914—Counselor for the State Department.
1915—Secretary of State.
1819—Special Minister Plenipotentiary to Peace Conference.

When Mr. Bryan resigned the portfolio of state President Wilson chose as his successor Robert Lansing, at the time counselor for the department.

If extensive knowledge of international law and of the political and economic conditions in Europe and their connection with the interests of the United States, and repeated experiences in the settlement of disputed questions between the United States and other countries would fit a man for head of our department dealing with foreign affairs, it would seem Mr. Lansing was eminently qualified for the position to which he had been appointed by the President.

For some years he had been regarded as an authority on international law. He had written and published much on diplomatic and cognate subjects and had published a volume, "Government, Its Origin, Growth and Form," which attracted wide attention among politicians and statesmen. He had also wide experience as counsel for the government in a number of delicate matters, acting as special counsel for the State Department a number of times. He had also acted as counsel for the Chinese government and for the government of Chili.

Appearing for the United States in a number of important matters he established a high reputation as an exponent of international law. It was because of his well-established reputation in this direction and of his knowledge of existing foreign complications that led President Wilson to select him for the position of counselor of the State Department and later as head of that department.

When he assmued his duties as head of the State Department our relations with the contending nations in Europe then engaged in a gigantic struggle in Belgium and France were strained almost to the breaking point. We were still at odds with Mexico. That country was passing through another revolution in which American interests were being sacrificed. If there ever was a time when strength of purpose and wise leadership was needed in this country it was that period when Mr. Lansing undertook the direction of affairs in the Department of State.

It was hoped his appointment would smooth over if it did not entirely dissipate the friction that had existed between the department and the President during Mr. Bryan's secretaryship. For a time matters did assume a brighter outlook, but affairs in President Wilson's cabinet were never entirely harmonious for a lengthy period.

During our active participation in the World War Secretary Lansing guided his department skillfully and conservatively. As the end approached material differences between the President and the Secretary began to show themselves. When President Wilson made known his intention of attending the meeting to propose peace terms to Germany and to take personal direction of negotiations on the part of the United States, Secretary Lansing advised against it, looking upon it as unwise, and contending the President could and would exercise a much greater influence on the negotiations while remaining in Washington than if he attended the conference in person. The President persisted in his determination and among the large number of persons he selected to go with him to Paris he chose Mr. Lansing. His commission for that purpose designated him as "Commissioner Plenipotentiary to Negotiate Peace."

In Paris the friction between the President and Secretary became more accentuated, the Secretary not accepting the views of the President on several important questions involved in the negotiations. The Secretary especially strongly opposed incorporating the provisions for organizing a League of Nations in the treaty of peace and to the treatment accorded to China.

Not long after his final return from Paris President Wilson was stricken with the disease which eventually caused his death. For many weeks he was not in a physical condition to conduct the affairs of the government. During that period Secretary Lansing invited the members of the cabinet to meet for the consideration of certain matters concerning administrative affairs. This angered the President and he peremptorily demanded Mr. Lansing's resignation, which was promptly tendered.

After leaving the State Department Mr. Lansing published a volume giving his personal narrative of the peace negotiations in which he severely condemned some parts of the negotiations. He resumed the practice of law in Washington, engaging largely in matters involving questions of international law.

BAINBRIDGE COLBY

BAINBRIDGE COLBY—Secretary of State from May 22, 1920, to March 5, 1921. Born at St. Louis, Missouri, December 22, 1869. Son of John P. and Frances (Bainbridge) Colby. Educated at Williams College, Massachusetts, graduating in 1890. Married, in 1895, Miss Nathalie Sedgewick.

1891—Member New York Assembly.
1912—Candidate for United States Senator on Progressive ticket.
1914—Candidate for United States Senator on Progressive ticket.
1917—Member United States Shipping Board.
1917—Special Assistant to the Attorney General.
1917—Member Inter-allied Conference at Paris.
1918—Vice President of the Emergency Fleet Corporation.
1920—Secretary of State.

After leaving college Mr. Colby chose the practice of law for his life profession. He took a course of study in a law college and then began the practice in New York. He soon commanded a very lucrative business in his chosen profession and rapidly advanced. As the friend and counsel of Samuel L. Clemens (Mark Twain), he settled the disputes between that distinguished author and his publishers.

He became active in politics, allying himself with the Republican party, and in 1891 was elected by that party to the General Assembly of New York, where he soon commanded attention as a debater. He was an ardent follower of the late Colonel Roosevelt, acting as one of his backers in the effort to control the Republican National Convention in 1912.

When Mr. Roosevelt finally broke with his party and became an independent candidate for the presidency, Mr. Colby followed him and was one of the founders of the party calling itself "Progressive." He followed the fortunes of Mr. Roosevelt during that campaign, but 1916 found him acting with the Democrats in re-electing President Wilson.

He was twice nominated for the United States Senate by the Progressives, but was unsuccessful in reaching that office. When the United States entered as an active participant in the World War the administration found itself seriously handicapped by the lack of shipping, and Congress enacted a law establishing a Shipping Board to conduct the building of ships. The board was authorized to purchase or establish shipbuilding plants and to contract with private plants for building vessels. Mr. Colby was selected as a member of that board. It became necessary to have a complete understanding with the powers opposing Germany and an inter-allied conference was called to meet in Paris. Mr. Colby was selected by the President to represent this government at the conference.

Building ships was as much as one set of men could well attend to, and to direct their equipment and to sail them a new board became necessary, so the Emergency Fleet Corporation was authorized. Mr. Colby was made vice president of the corporation.

When President Wilson was making up his entourage to accompany him to the peace negotiations at Paris he chose Mr. Colby as one of the party. Just how important a part he performed as one of the President's advisers is not known, but he evidently retained the confidence of his chief, for when the forced resignation of Mr. Lansing as Secretary of State made a vacancy in that office, the President named Mr. Colby to fill the vacancy.

It was a hard time for a new man to enter upon such an important office. Mr. Colby had had no previous experience in such matters as it is the province of the Department of State to consider, and in 1920 many delicate questions existed. Notwithstanding a treaty of peace had been agreed upon all Europe was in turmoil. There was a notable want of harmony between the former allies and, naturally, many of the interests of the United States were involved.

President Wilson, however, kept all the threads of our relations with other countries in his own hands and Secretary Colby had little opportunity to give a test of his real ability during his short incumbency of the office.

After their retirement from office in 1921 the former President and former Secretary formed a partnership for the practice of law. The partnership did not last long, owing to the physical condition of Mr. Wilson.

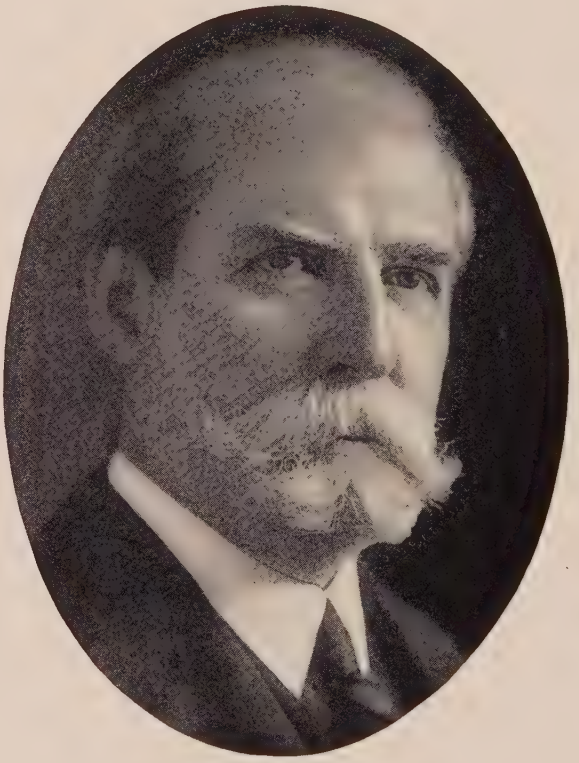
CHARLES EVANS HUGHES

CHARLES EVANS HUGHES—Secretary of State from March 5, 1921, to March 4, 1925. Born at Glenns Falls, New York, April 11, 1862. Son of David Charles and Mary Catherine (Connelly) Hughes. Attended for two years Colgate University and graduated from Brown University in 1881. Married, December 5, 1888, Miss Antoinette Carter.

1905—Counsel for Steven's Gas Committee of New York Legislature.
1905—Counsel for New York Legislative Committee Investigating Insurance.
1906—Special Assistant Attorney General in Coal Investigation.
1907—Governor of New York.
1909—Governor of New York.
1910—Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.
1916—Unsuccessful candidate for President.
1917—Special Assistant Attorney General.
1921—Secretary of State.

Perhaps no American has ever received so many collegiate honors as has Mr. Hughes. In 1881 he was made A. B. by his alma mater, and three years later the same university gave him the degree of A. M. That same year Columbia University bestowed upon him the degree of L.L. B. He has received the degree of L.L. D. from eleven colleges and universities: Brown, in 1906; Columbia, Knox and Lafayette, 1907; Union and Colgate, in 1908; George Washington University, in 1909; Williams College, Harvard and University of Pennsylvania, in 1910, and Yale, in 1915.

After taking a thorough course of law he entered upon the practice in New York in 1884. For several years he was a professor and special lecturer on law for Cornell University. With the exception of the three years he acted as lecturer and professor at Cornell he continued in the active practice. In 1905 and 1906 he made a national reputation by the skill with which he conducted the investigations by a committee of the New York Legislature in the gas and electric situation in the state and in the conduct of certain life insurance companies. He added to this reputation as special counsel of the Department of Justice to initiate steps for the prosecution of coal-owning railroads for violations of the anti-trust and anti-rebate laws.



Charles E. Hughes

His success in these investigations brought about his nomination and election as governor of the state. As governor he was an ardent advocate of constructive legislation, such as those laws creating the New York Public Service Commission and those connected with requiring more adequate standards in the conduct of the affairs of life insurance companies doing business in the state of New York. He was, in the best sense of the term, a "Reform Governor."

While he was serving his second term as governor, President Taft offered him the position of Associate Justice on the Supreme Court bench. The appointment was made April 25, 1910, and was promptly confirmed by the Senate. He did not take his place on the bench, however, until the following October, desiring to retain the governorship until certain legislation in which he was deeply interested was perfected. When that point was reached he resigned his office and took the oath as Associate Justice. He was then but forty-eight years of age.

As a member of the court he took part in many notable opinions. The opinions written by Justice Hughes are regarded by the profession as being among the ablest and clearest ever pronounced by the Supreme Court. During his service of a little more than five years he wrote the opinion in one hundred and fifty cases. This is a strong evidence of his industry.

In 1916 the Republican party nominated him as its candidate for the presidency and he resigned his place on the bench. He made a canvass of the country, especially of the Western states, but was defeated at the election. He returned to the practice of his profession in New York, commanding at once a large clientage. This practice he continued until President Harding called him into his cabinet at the beginning of his administration, giving him the place of Secretary of State.

When he took over the direction of affairs in that department he found many perplexing questions waiting a solution. The illness of President Wilson had produced a fearful tangle in our relations with foreign countries. The armistice with Germany had been in existence almost two and one-half years, yet we were technically at war with Germany and Austria. Our relations with China and Japan were in a state of chaos; they were not in a better condition with Mexico, and there were jealousies existing among the Latin republics of South America.

It soon became evident that Secretary Hughes was master of the situation. Peace treaties with Germany, Austria and Hungary were negotiated in which American rights were secured and amply guaranteed. More than fifty other treaties were negotiated during the first three years of his administration of the office. It was mainly through his efforts that the convention was held to secure the limitation of armaments, thus advancing the cause of lasting peace while freeing the people of the countries interested from burdensome taxation. He

displayed tact and ability in securing these various treaties, upholding the honor of the United States in every particular.

In 1924 what is known as the "Dawes Plan," for the settlement of financial matters between Germany and the other European powers, was under discussion between the premiers of the various nations concerned. Much friction at first developed. Secretary Hughes visited Europe in an unofficial capacity. Through his mediation the difference between the several premiers were smoothed away and financial peace was established in Europe. An era of prosperity both in Europe and America at once sprang up.

Under his administration the Department of State has been thoroughly reorganized, the reorganization resulting in a marked expedition in the transaction of business, while our consular system has been made more efficient and more helpful to the business of the country.

As great as has been the activities of the Department of State at various times never were they so important as during the administration of Secretary Hughes. He entered upon the discharge of his duties on March 5, 1921, and in the first four years the government concluded fifty-eight treaties. The treaties embrace the treaties of peace with Germany, Austria and Hungary; the Washington conference treaties, including the five-power naval treaty, the four-power treaty relating to insular possessions and insular dominions in the region of the Pacific Ocean, and the nine-power treaties relating to China; the convention with Japan with respect to rights in Yap and other former German islands in the Pacific Ocean; conventions with France and Belgium, respectively, relating to certain territories under mandate; arbitration treaties; extradition treaties; the halibut fishery treaty with Great Britain in respect to Canada; the claims conventions with Mexico; the convention with the American republics to prevent conflicts through securing impartial investigations by commissions of inquiry; and the so-called liquor treaties which have been made with Great Britain, Germany, Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Italy, to aid in the enforcement of the laws against the smuggling of intoxicating liquors into the United States; a commercial treaty with Germany; two treaties with Turkey in respect to general relations and to extradition; a treaty with the American republics for the protection of trade-marks; a treaty in respect to Canada for exchange of information and prevention of smuggling, and a liquor treaty with Panama similar to other treaties of this description already mentioned.

As the close of President Coolidge's first term was nearing Secretary Hughes gave notice of his desire to leave the cabinet, and tendered his resignation to take effect on March 4, 1925. It has fallen to the lot of few men who have held that high place in the cabinet to accomplish more than Mr. Hughes has effected. Among his most notable achievements was bringing to amicable settlement the involved payments to be

made to the United States by Germany for losses incurred and expenses by this country during and following the war with that country.

When this matter first came before the allied and associated governments there was much friction, some of the allied governments going so far as to hold that the United States was not entitled to anything because she was not a signatory of the Treaty of Versailles. As the new year of 1925 was opening an agreement was reached through the persistent and steady efforts of Secretary Hughes. By this agreement the total sum the United States was to receive was fixed at approximately six hundred million dollars, payable in annual installments of twenty-five million dollars.

Few if any American premiers stood as high in the estimation of foreign countries as did Secretary Hughes. Referring to his anticipated retirement the Paris *Temps*, the leading paper of France, spoke of him as a man of the first rank, whose personal influence has been very large. It was due to him, the *Temps* said, more than to any other, that serious complications were avoided between the United States and Japan. The New York *Times*, an independent newspaper, gave voice to what it believed to be the popular verdict on Mr. Hughes' achievements as follows:

> The time is not come fully to review and appraise the achievements of Mr. Hughes in the State Department. That he has displayed high qualities is the verdict of all impartial-minded men. His enormous industry, facility in grasping a large body of complicated facts and tearing the essential heart out of them, had been previously exhibited on so many occasions that their reappearance in his work as Secretary of State was only what was looked for. But, in addition to his insatiate energy, he has shown frequently the capacity of the true statesman in dealing with foreign questions new to him, and an ability to walk steadily and securely in paths which were for him untried. His career in the Department of State will yield fresh material for the arguments of those who hold that a man of first-class abilities can do one thing as well as another, if he only applies to each new task the full strength of his mind.
>
> No one is a perfect Secretary of State. An ideal diplomat in that office would doubtless not have been able to do the work which Mr. Hughes has got through. A wholly tactful diplomat may please without putting things through. Mr. Hughes has put through some very big things, and will be ranked in the first class of American Secretaries of State.

FRANK BILLINGS KELLOGG

FRANK B. KELLOGG—Secretary of State from March 4, 1925. Born at Potsdam, New York, December 22, 1856. Son of Asa F. and Abigail (Billings) Kellogg. Educated in the common schools. Married, in 1896, Miss Clara M. Cook.

1917—United States Senator.
1924—Ambassador to Great Britain.
1925—Secretary of State.

Mr. Kellogg is best known to the general public by the designation of "Trust Buster," given him when acting as a special assistant to the Attorney General in prosecuting the paper and Standard Oil trusts, and in the suit to dissolve the merger of the Union Pacific and Southern Pacific railroads.

While he was still a lad in knickerbockers his parents removed from Potsdam to Minnesota, where he continued his studies in the common schools of Rochester. Later he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1877. He almost at once reached a leading position among the lawyers of the place. He served for three years as city attorney of Rochester, following this with five years as attorney for Olmstead county. In 1887 he removed to St. Paul and entered into partnership with Cushman K. Davis, acknowledged as one of the ablest lawyers in the country.

He acted as the attorney for the Interstate Commerce Commission in its investigation of the Harriman railroads. He quickly made for himself a national reputation as a successful lawyer. All the time he was thus engaged in the practice of his profession he kept largely interested in politics, and in 1917 was elected to the United States Senate. In that body he soon reached a place among the leaders of the Republican side. His services in the Senate were no less distinguished than those when he acted as the nation's "Trust Buster." He was a candidate to succeed himself but was defeated by Mr. Shipstead, the candidate of the Farmer-Labor party.

Not long after his retirement from the Senate President Harding gave him the appointment of ambassador to Great Britain. This appointment was at first received by his party associates with some trepidation and fears, as to his being temperamentally qualified to meet the requirements of that position just at that time, as many of the questions brought to the front by the war would require the most delicate handling. He surprised everybody by his success and made himself respected by all the contending countries. In the United States the people, regardless of political belief, quickly acquired a profound respect and admiration for him. He is a lawyer of long experience and sound judgment, and his experience in conducting the negotiations with other countries have no doubt ripened him for a place at the head of the cabinet. His selection for that place by President Coolidge has met with warm commendation. Of him the Boston *Herald* said:

> The ability of Frank B. Kellogg nobody can dispute. He has in a little more than twelve months established himself solidly in the esteem of the British public and of his fellow-diplomats. In the Senate he enjoyed the respect of all his colleagues. Yet, he is qualified for the place to which he has been invited.
>
> The general attitude of the incoming Secretary is well enough known to warrant the opinion that such matters, at least, as the world court and reduction of armaments by international agreement will have hospitable consideration in the not-distant future.

ALBERT GALLATIN

WM. H. CRAWFORD

ALEXANDER HAMILTON

S. P. CHASE

HUGH McCULLOCH

The Department of the Treasury

Although there had been a large issue of paper money by the Continental Congress early in 1775, it was not until July 29 of that year anything like a Treasury Department was authorized. By resolution of the Congress the direct management of the finances was given to Michael Hillegas and George Clymer, both of Pennsylvania, who were styled "Treasurers." On February 17, 1776, a standing committee of five was appointed to superintend the treasury. This committee was clothed with ample powers to provide for all the wants of the treasury. Under the committee an auditor general and a number of clerks were employed.

The treasury board was hard put to it to raise money. Efforts were made to effect loans in Europe and at last a lottery was decided upon. The depreciation of the Continental currency was so rapid and so great that the lottery scheme was abandoned finally. On February 13, 1779, Congress resolved that a Secretary of the Treasury be appointed and Mr. Robert Troup was chosen for that position in May following. Early in 1781 another change was made. This time Robert Morris was made "Superintendent of Finances." A few months later he was invested with the powers and duties of "Agent of Marine," or Secretary of the Navy. Mr. Morris resigned these offices in 1784 and Congress once more adopted the commission plan. This plan continued until the first Congress under the Constitution created the Department of the Treasury.

By an act of Congress approved September 2, 1789, it was provided there should be created an executive department to be known as the Department of the Treasury, with the following officers: A Secretary, a Comptroller, an Auditor, a Treasurer, a Register, and an assistant to the Secretary of the Treasury, the assistant to be appointed by the Secretary. It was made the duty of the Secretary "to digest and prepare plans for the improvement and management of the revenue and for the support of the public credit; and to prepare and report estimates of the public revenues and of the public expenditures; to superintend the collection of the revenues," and to generally perform all duties relative to the finances as he shall be directed to perform. It may be noticed that in providing for the creation of the other executive departments, the principal officer of the department is required to perform such

duties as may be assigned to him by the President and to annually make report to the President, but in creating the Department of the Treasury the President is given no direct control or authority over the actions of the Secretary. He is, from first to last, the officer of Congress, making his report to that body. The President appoints him, and may remove him at pleasure, but in the performance of his duties as head of the Department of the Treasury he is wholly independent of the President. The act creating this executive department was drafted by Alexander Hamilton, and such is the preciseness of its provisions that for more than a century and a quarter no material changes were made except in some instances to widen the scope of the duties of the Secretary. The powers and duties of each of the subordinate officials were clearly and succinctly set out and in some cases remain the same to this day.

In 1922 a very marked change was made and a "budget bureau" created, and much of the duties formerly performed by the Secretary of the Treasury were assigned to this new bureau. For instance, the budget bureau now makes out all estimates as to expenditures. The heads of the various departments and of the other branches of the government deliver to the head of the budget bureau estimates as to funds they may need. He can cut down or increase as he may deem proper and he reports the estimates to Congress.

The Secretary of the Treasury superintends the collection of the revenues of the government, grants warrants on the treasurer for all moneys to be paid out by that officer, in pursuance of appropriations made by Congress. His duties embrace the management of the national debt, the national currency and coinage, supervision of national banks, of the internal and customs duties systems, the merchant marine, etc. In addition he controls the construction of all public buildings, the coining and printing of currency, the administration of the lifesaving and revenue cutter service, and the public health and marine hospital service.

The direct management and oversight of the various functions of the department is now divided between the under secretary, three assistant secretaries and the chief clerk, who is also styled "assistant to the secretary." Formerly the duty of examining and passing upon all claims against the government was divided between several auditors and the comptroller. Now there is a comptroller general who has supervision over all claims and expenditures and decides out of what fund they are to be paid.

The register signs and issues all bonds, United States notes and other securities, and receipts for them when presented for redemption. The treasurer is custodian of all the funds of the government and pays them out on warrants issued by the Treasury Department.

The National Bank Act of 1863 created the office of comptroller of the currency. He supervises the national banking system and has a

large control over the national banks. He is now a member of the Federal Reserve Board.

The office of Commissioner of Internal Revenue was created by the revenue act of 1862. He superintends the collection of all internal revenue taxes, including that on corporations and incomes. The director of the mint has supervision of the coinage and kindred matters.

The seal of the Treasury Department is practically the same as that used under the old Continental system. It consists of the national shield, surrounded by wreaths. On the shield is a pair of scales, or balances, a square with thirteen stars, and a key. Around the seal is the legend: *"Thesaur. Amer. Septent. Sigil,"* being an abbreviation of the Latin *"Thesauri Americae Septentrionalis Sigillum,"* meaning "the seal of the treasury of North America." The thirteen stars represent the thirteen original colonies; the balance is to represent equal and exact justice in administering the financial affairs and the key in secular heraldry has been used to denote offices of state from remote antiquity.

Originally the Treasury Department was merely the fiscal agent of the government, collecting the revenue. The moneys, when collected, were deposited in the Bank of the United States or one of its branches. This continued until the bank was broken down during the administration of President Jackson. During the administration of President Van Buren a sub-treasury system was devised. After the breaking down of the Bank of the United States the government funds were deposited in a number of state banks, known politically as "favored banks." This was not satisfactory in any sense of the word, causing much confusion and delay in disbursements. This brought about the sub-treasury system, which has been superseded by the present federal reserve system.

It was a difficult problem to start a financial system for a new government and one founded on different lines from any that had preceded it. But such was the confidence of the people in the government they had themselves established that matters worked very smoothly until war was declared against Great Britain in 1812. At that time the treasury had but a comparatively small amount of money on hand and a public loan had to be resorted to. Secretary Gallatin found much difficulty in floating the bonds, or certificates, of the government, but at last succeeded.

The government from its very beginning has almost steadily endeavored to reduce the government indebtedness whenever practicable. This plan was followed after the close of the war with Great Britain, and with such success that during the administration of President Jackson the country became free from debt and with a large surplus in the treasury, or what was considered a large surplus in those days. This caused great alarm among the statesmen, who saw, or thought they saw, great danger to the country in an overloaded treasury. At

last a scheme of distributing this surplus between the various states according to population was devised and several million dollars was thus distributed, ostensibly to be returned on call of the government. It still remains distributed, no part of it ever having been paid back.

When the government offices were removed to Washington in 1800, the Treasury Department occupied a small wooden building on the northeast corner of the present site. It was designed by George Hatfield, an English architect, and consisted of two stories and basement. It was partly destroyed by fire in 1801, just before the inauguration of President Jefferson. Many valuable documents and papers were lost by this fire.

It was replaced by a building designed by Robert Nourse, who for forty years was register of the treasury. This building with all its contents was burned by the British, August 24, 1814. Some of the archives had been taken to a place of safety before the entrance to the city by the British, but many of the most valuable and important were destroyed. George W. Campbell, of Tennessee, was Secretary of the Treasury at the time, and was accused in Congress of gross neglect in not causing the removal of all the archives. He shortly resigned his office.

Another building was soon erected, and this, in turn, burned March 31, 1833. This was while Louis McLane, of Delaware, was Secretary. In this instance most of the files and documents were saved. By an act of Congress, approved July 4, 1836, one hundred thousand dollars was appropriated for the construction of a new building. In 1838, when but little more than the outer walls were up, a committee of Congress severely condemned the building on account of its location, plan and the materials used in the construction. The committee recommended the tearing down of the building and the use of the material in constructing a building for the Postoffice Department, the building occupied by that department just having been destroyed by fire. Nothing was done with the report of the committee and by August, 1839, the building was so far completed as to permit of the use of a part of it. The whole building was finally completed at a cost of one million two hundred and fourteen thousand dollars.

The salary of the Secretary of the Treasury has been changed several times. In 1789 it was $3,500; in 1799, $5,000; in 1819, $6,000; in 1853, $8,000; in 1873, $10,000; in 1874, $8,000, and in 1908, $12,000.

There have been times when the department has found it hard to secure the money needed by the government. The country rapidly increased in population and the work in all the departments increased, making it necessary to have a greater number of employees. The first real stress for money came on the declaration of war against Mexico. An army was to be recruited and maintained, a navy was to be constructed and supplied. From one cause and another the credit of the government had gone to a low ebb and the Secretary of the Treasury found it difficult to float a loan even at a high rate of interest.

Another stress came when the Civil War suddenly broke out. The financial situation throughout the country was bad; there was a flood of paper money issued by banks in the different states, only a small part circulating at par. Mr. Chase, who was at the head of the Department of the Treasury, first attempted to float bonds, but demanded that payments for the bonds should be in gold. But gold enough could not be had. It was then a new and far-reaching departure from all the traditions was resorted to. The government itself became an issuer of paper money. The notes were made a legal tender for all debts, public and private. This legal tender qualification was later the subject of litigation. At the close of that war the government found itself in debt to an amount of about three billion dollars. This was fairly staggering to the people and all predicted the debt would never be paid.

It was not until the World War, however, that the people awakened to what an extent the government could borrow money. While the Civil War was still waging a new banking system was entered upon. This system was in the height of its prosperity when the World War came, and the Treasury Department found it easier to float bonds to the amount of several billions than Secretary Gallatin did in 1812 to secure takers for less than one million dollars at a fair rate.

When the government began issuing paper currency of its own it became necessary to establish a printing and engraving plant. It was small at first, but is now the largest plant of the kind in the world, employing more than five thousand persons. It is computed that eleven million dollars of paper currency is printed each day. In addition to the printing of currency the plant prints all the bonds and other certificates of indebtedness of the government. The paper used for printing of bank notes is of the toughest linen made by a secret process, its manufacture being guarded with the greatest care.

The plates from which the money is printed are made with the most exacting care. It usually takes about a year to complete one of the original plates. The money is not printed from the original plates but from duplicates made by mechanical process. The public is never permitted to see the engravers while at work. So great is the watchfulness over the paper and the money printed from the plates that losses are rare, and never to any large amount.

In addition to the issuing of all the paper currency the Treasury Department coins all the gold and silver money in circulation or held in the treasury vaults. There are three mints in the country.

Considering the tremendous amount of money that is daily handled by the Department of the Treasury, and the number of persons handling its funds, losses by theft or defalcation are exceedingly rare. In the one hundred and thirty-five years of the existence of the government only two defalcations of a serious amount have occurred. The first was discovered during the administration of President Van Buren, and its magnitude, as looked upon at that day, was so amazing

as to startle the whole country. When Andrew Jackson became President, among the first appointments made by him was that of Samuel Swartwout as collector of the port of New York. When his name was sent to the Senate it met with strenuous opposition, especially by those who knew him. It was urged that he was lacking in business qualifications and that his reputation in business was bad. He was, however, finally confirmed. For some years everything wore an aspect of honesty. No books were ever more carefully kept. In fact, they were regarded in the department as models. Soon after Mr. Van Buren became President ugly rumors as to Mr. Swartwout were in circulation. An examination of his administration disclosed that he was a defaulter and that one and a half million dollars of the government's money had disappeared.

The next large defalcation was that of W. R. Whittaker, assistant treasurer of the United States at New Orleans. He had first been appointed collector of internal revenue at New Orleans and had served with such distinction that he was advanced to the post of assistant treasurer. It was somewhat remarkable that his defalcation was not discovered until after he had been nominated for judge of one of the federal courts of Louisiana. From some cause the authorities at the Treasury Department became suspicious and John Jay Knox, one of the disbursing officers of the department, was quietly sent to New Orleans to investigate.

On his arrival he found Whittaker temporarily absent from the city. He at once began counting the money and soon disclosed a shortage of more than one million dollars. Some one told Knox that Whittaker had a private box in one of the banks. He caused this to be seized and opened, finding a large sum in money and certified checks, which he immediately confiscated for the government. Thus the actual loss to the government was reduced about five hundred thousand dollars. Since then no defalcation for any large amount has occurred.

One or another of the mints has from time to time suffered from stealings.

Roster of Secretaries of the Treasury

Alexander Hamilton, of New York.
From September 11, 1789, to January 31, 1795.

Oliver Wolcott, Jr., of Connecticut.
From February 2, 1795, to December 31, 1800.

Samuel Dexter, of Massachusetts.
From January 1, 1801, to May 6, 1801 (*see* Department of War).

Albert Gallatin, of Pennsylvania.
From May 14, 1801, to February 9, 1814.

George W. Campbell, of Tennessee.
From February 9, 1814, to September 26, 1814.

Alexander Dallas, of Pennsylvania.
From October 14, 1814, to October 21, 1816.

William H. Crawford, of Georgia.
From October 22, 1816, to March 3, 1825.

Richard Rush, of Pennsylvania.
From August 1, 1825, to March 3, 1829.

Samuel D. Ingham, of Pennsylvania.
From March 6, 1829, to June 20, 1831.

Louis McLane, of Delaware.
From August 8, 1831, to May 29, 1833.

William J. Duane, of Pennsylvania.
From June 1, 1833, to September 23, 1833.

Roger B. Taney, of Maryland.
From September 24, 1833, to June 25, 1834; rejected by Senate (*see* Department of Justice).

Levi Woodbury, of New Hampshire.
From July 1, 1834, to March 3, 1841.

Thomas Ewing, of Ohio.
From March 6, 1841, to September 11, 1841.

Walter Forward, of Pennsylvania.
From September 14, 1841, to February 28, 1843.

John C. Spencer, of New York.
From March 8, 1843, to May 2, 1844 (*see* Department of War).

GEORGE M. BIBB, of Kentucky.
From July 4, 1844, to March 7, 1845.

ROBERT J. WALKER, of Mississippi.
From March 8, 1845, to March 5, 1849.

WILLIAM M. MEREDITH, of Pennsylvania.
From March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850.

THOMAS CORWIN, of Ohio.
From July 23, 1850, to March 7, 1853.

JAMES GUTHRIE, of Kentucky.
From March 8, 1853, to March 6, 1857.

HOWELL COBB, of Georgia.
From March 7, 1857, to December 8, 1860.

PHILIP F. THOMAS, of Maryland.
From December 13, 1860, to January 14, 1861.

JOHN A. DIX, of New York.
From January 15, 1861, to March 6, 1861.

SALMON P. CHASE, of Ohio.
From March 7, 1861, to June 30, 1864.

WILLIAM P. FESSENDEN, of Maine.
From July 5, 1864, to March 3, 1865.

HUGH MCCULLOCH, of Indiana.
From March 9, 1865, to March 4, 1869, and from October 31, 1884, to March 7, 1885.

GEORGE S. BOUTWELL, of Massachusetts.
From March 12, 1869, to March 17, 1873.

WILLIAM A. RICHARDSON, of Massachusetts.
From March 17, 1873, to June 4, 1874.

BENJAMIN H. BRISTOW, of Kentucky.
From June 4, 1874, to June 20, 1876.

LOT M. MORRILL, of Maine.
From July 7, 1876, to March 9, 1877.

JOHN SHERMAN, of Ohio.
From March 10, 1877, to March 3, 1881.

WILLIAM WINDOM, of Minnesota.
From March 8, 1881, to November 14, 1881, and from March 7, 1889, to January 29, 1891.

CHARLES J. FOLGER, of New York.
From November 14, 1881, to September 4, 1884.

WALTER Q. GRESHAM, of Illinois.
From September 25, 1884, to October 29, 1884 (*see* Department of State).

DANIEL MANNING, of New York.
From March 8, 1885, to March 31, 1887.

CHARLES S. FAIRCHILD, of New York.
From April 1, 1887, to March 6, 1889.

CHARLES FOSTER, of Ohio.
From February 25, 1891, to March 7, 1893.

JOHN G. CARLISLE, of Kentucky.
From March 7, 1893, to March 6, 1897.

LYMAN J. GAGE, of Illinois.
From March 6, 1897, to January 31, 1902.

LESLIE M. SHAW, of Iowa.
From February 1, 1902, to March 4, 1907.

GEORGE B. CORTELYOU, of New York.
From March 4, 1907, to March 4, 1909.

FRANKLIN MCVEAGH, of Illinois.
From March 5, 1909, to March 6, 1913.

WILLIAM G. MCADOO, of New York.
From March 6, 1913, to December 15, 1918.

CARTER GLASS, of Virginia.
From December 16, 1918, to February 2, 1920.

DAVID M. HOUSTON, of Texas.
From February 3, 1920, to March 4, 1921 (*see* Department of Agriculture).

ANDREW WILLIAM MELLON, of Pennsylvania.
From March 4, 1921.

Samuel J. Dexter was serving as Secretary of War when appointed Secretary of the Treasury.

Richard Rush served as Attorney General in the cabinet of President Monroe.

Louis McLane was serving as Secretary of the Treasury when he was transferred to the State Department by President Jackson.

William J. Duane was peremptorily dismissed from the cabinet by President Jackson, September 23, 1833.

Roger B. Taney was appointed Secretary of the Treasury by President Jackson, September 24, 1833, during a recess of the Senate. His name was not sent to the Senate until June 23, 1834. The nomination was rejected by the Senate the next day. Mr. Taney was serving as Attorney General when he was transferred to the Treasury Department by President Jackson.

Levi Woodbury was serving as Secretary of the Navy when appointed Secretary of the Treasury by President Jackson.

Thomas Ewing served as Secretary of the Interior in the cabinet of President Taylor. He was Secretary of the Treasury in the cabinet of President William Henry Harrison when that President died, and was Secretary of the Interior when President Taylor died.

John C. Spencer was Secretary of War when transferred to the Treasury Department by President Tyler.

Caleb Cushing, of Massachusetts, was nominated Secretary of the Treasury by President Tyler, March 3, 1843. The nomination was rejected the same day.

James S. Greene, of New Jersey, was nominated Secretary of the Treasury by President Tyler, June 14, 1844. The nomination was rejected the next day.

David Tod, of Ohio, was nominated by President Lincoln as Secretary of the Treasury, June 30, 1864, but his name was withdrawn the next day.

On February 13, 1865, President Lincoln nominated Edwin D. Morgan, of New York, to be Secretary of the Treasury, to take effect March 3 of that year. Mr. Morgan declined the office and his name was withdrawn the next day. President Arthur nominated Mr. Morgan for the same position, October 24, 1881. The nomination was confirmed by the Senate on the same day, but Mr. Morgan again declined.

Hugh McCulloch served as Secretary under three Presidents—Lincoln, Johnson and Arthur.

Alexander T. Stewart, of New York, was nominated for Secretary of the Treasury by President Grant, March 5, 1869. The nomination was confirmed by the Senate on the same day. On the ninth Mr. Stewart declined, owing to the fact that he was ineligible under the law of September 2, 1789.

John Sherman served as Secretary of State in the cabinet of President McKinley.

Secretaries William Windom and Charles J. Folger died while holding the office.

Walter Q. Gresham was Postmaster General when appointed Secretary of the Treasury by President Arthur. He later served as Secretary of State in the cabinet of President Cleveland.

Biographies of Secretaries of the Treasury

Alexander Hamilton

Alexander Hamilton—Secretary of the Treasury from September 11, 1789, to January 31, 1795. Born on the Island of Nevis, January 11, 1757. Educated at King's (now Columbia) College, New York. Married, December 14, 1780, Miss Elizabeth Schuyler. Died, July 12, 1804, in New York city.

1776—Captain of Artillery in the Revolutionary Army.
1777—Aide-de-Camp to General Washington.
1782—Receiver of Continental Taxes for New York.
1782—Member Continental Congress.
1786—Delegate to Annapolis Convention.
1787—Delegate to Constitutional Convention.
1787—Member Continental Congress.
1788—Member New York Legislature.
1788—Delegate to New York Convention to ratify the Constitution.
1789—Secretary of the Treasury.

Alexander Hamilton, the first Secretary of the Treasury and the organizer of the financial system of the United States, was born on the Island of Nevis. There has always been an uncertainty as to his parentage. As a boy he displayed a wonderful capacity for gathering knowledge and managed to pick up a rude and desultory education. At the age of eleven years he was placed in the counting-room of a merchant as an apprentice to the commercial business. Such was the ability he displayed that before he was twelve years of age he was left largely in control of the business and financial affairs of his employer.

He displayed a talent for writing and a vivid description of a disastrous hurricane which swept over the island, written by him, attracted the attention of the public-spirited citizens and he was sent to New York to complete his education. He landed in Baltimore in October, 1772. He was then but fifteen years of age. He proceeded to New York and presented the letters of introduction that had been given him and almost immediately entered a grammar school. He pursued his studies with such energy and such power to absorb knowledge that in one year he was ready to enter college.

It was at a time when the public mind was greatly agitated over the acts of the British Parliament and young Hamilton at once took his stand on the side of the patriots. At that time New York city was strongly Tory; in fact, a majority of the people of the state of New York were opposed to resistance to the mother country. A call was issued for a congress composed of delegates from the various colonies and New York was invited to join in the movement. The friends of the patriot cause in the city of New York, for the purpose of bringing a

pressure to bear upon the legislature to appoint delegates to the congress, called a great mass meeting of the citizens to be held in the open fields.

This meeting was held on July 6, 1774. Hamilton, then but seventeen years old, attended. Many speeches were made, but the meeting seemed lukewarm, when Hamilton forced his way to the platform and delivered an address so replete with cogent reasoning on the rights of the colonies, and on the importance of a united effort to enforce those rights, all clothed in the choicest language, showing the speaker to be familiar with the history of other republics, that the meeting was fired with enthusiasm and adopted the resolutions intended for the legislature. This speech attracted the attention of the leaders of the patriot party and Hamilton, young as he was, was admitted to their councils.

In the latter part of 1774 two of the ablest writers on the Tory side issued pamphlets strongly attacking the congress and advocating submission to the will of the king. For a time these pamphlets stemmed the rising tide of patriotism in the state. Hamilton replied to them anonymously, completely refuting their arguments, overthrowing their theories and showing the colonies had a right to resist, even to the extent of taking up arms. In one of these replies he said:

> All men have one common origin; they participate in one common nature; and consequently have one common right. No reason can be advanced why one man should exercise any power or pre-eminence over his fellow-creatures, unless they have voluntarily vested him with it. Since, then, Americans have not by any act of theirs empowered the British Parliament to make laws for them, it follows they have no just authority to do it. The Parliament claims the right to tax in all cases whatsoever; its late acts are in virtue of that claim. How ridiculous, then, it is to affirm that we are quarreling for the trifling sum of three pence a pound on tea when it is evidently the principle against which we contend.

So remarkable for their strength, both in argument and style, were these writings that their authorship was attributed to John Jay and to other well-known patriots. When their real authorship became known it gave Mr. Hamilton a wide reputation. He wrote many articles for the newspapers, urging the call of patriotism, and to him was attributed much of the growth of patriotic sentiment in the state.

He devoted much time to the study of military affairs and joined a volunteer company that had been recruited in anticipation of armed resistance. Early in 1776 the New York Convention ordered the recruiting of a company of artillery for the Continental service. Although but nineteen years of age Hamilton applied for the commission to raise this company, and obtained it. So thoroughly did he drill his company that it was soon known as one of the best in the service and attracted the attention of General Greene, who introduced its captain to General Washington. With his company Hamilton took part in the disastrous battle of Long Island and he behaved with such coolness and courage that he received the highest praise from his commanding officer. He

shared in that frightful march of the patriot army across the fields of New Jersey and was foremost among the heroes of Trenton and Princeton. His courage and skill attracted the notice of General Washington, who appointed him one of his aides with the rank of lieutenant colonel. This appointment was made March 1, 1777. His principal occupation on the staff was to conduct the enormous correspondence of the commander-in-chief. In 1781, owing to a slight dispute with General Washington, he resigned his position on the staff and returned to the line of the army. At Yorktown Colonel Hamilton was given the coveted privilege of leading the assault on one of the outworks of the British and such was his dash that he completed his task much more quickly than the French force to which had been assigned the capturing of a similar redoubt.

Mr. Hamilton possessed a constructive genius in the affairs of government. Before the close of the War for Independence the financial affairs of the government and of the country were in a most deplorable condition; there was no money with which to pay the troops and Congress had no power to provide money except by borrowing, and to make loans was impossible. Early in 1780 Mr. Hamilton, then but twenty-three years of age, wrote a letter to Robert Morris, head of the financial department of Congress, on the financial situation of the colonies. This little treatise is as valuable today as it was in 1780 as a correct guide to conducting the financial affairs of a government.

Thus early he began to formulate in his mind the scheme of government he afterward did so much to organize. He proposed, in this letter to Morris, to meet the financial difficulties by a gradual contraction of the public debt, thus restoring the public credit; by a tax and by a foreign loan which was to form the basis of a national bank, the pith of the scheme being to unite the interest of the monied classes in supporting the government credit. The bank was to be a great trading and banking corporation in private hands, but backed, and partly controlled, by the government, to which it was to be under certain specified obligations.

A few months later, in a letter to James Duane, then a member of Congress from New York, he pointed out the inefficiency of Congress, and the illy adjusted relations of the states. The root of the evil was in the weakness of the central government under the Articles of Confederation and the jarring and independent powers of the states. He urged the formation of a stronger government, with a single man at the head of the departments, with absolute control by Congress of certain functions, such as making treaties and controlling the army and the navy. A month later he wrote another letter in which he said:

> We must have a government with more power. We must have a tax in kind. We must have a foreign loan. We must have a bank on true principles of a bank. We must have an administration distinct from Congress, and in the hands of a single man under their orders. We must, above all things, have an army for war and an establishment that will interest the officers in the service.

These letters show the constructive character of his intellect. Before the war ended he was looking forward to how a new and more complete system of government could be built up.

When it was known the war was practically over Colonel Hamilton, refusing all offers of pecuniary aid from General Schuyler, whose daughter he had married, began the study of law. After a course of study extending over but a few months, he was admitted to the bar in 1782. So strongly had his letters on the financial situation of the country impressed Congress that it offered him a place as commissioner to proceed to Europe to effect a French loan, but he declined the tempting offer.

In June, 1782, Mr. Morris appointed him receiver of the continental taxes for the state of New York. He displayed his usual energy in pressing the claims of the government, and visited Poughkeepsie where the assembly was in session. There he urged three resolutions on that body—demanding a new convention and a better and stronger union of the states; and outlining a clear and scientific plan of taxation. The legislature failed to adopt the plan for taxation he suggested at that time, but later, in the main points, it was put into operation. The legislature elected him a delegate to the Continental Congress, in which he took his seat in November, 1782.

Young, enthusiastic and full of ideas of government he plunged into the debates and almost at a bound become a recognized leader. Congress could do little, owing to its lack of power, and at the close of his term, in 1783, he declined a re-election, retiring to private life and to the practice of his profession. The condition of the states grew steadily worse and the jealousies of the states prevented Congress from doing anything for the general good, but at last the tide began to turn and the people to favor a change.

Virginia, having made a successful commercial agreement with Maryland, conceived it would be a good plan if a similar agreement could be made between all the states, and in January, 1786, the Virginia Assembly adopted a resolution inviting the other states to send delegates to a convention to be held at Annapolis to take into consideration the commercial affairs of the whole country. In this was the germ of the Constitutional Convention of 1787. New York appointed five delegates to the Annapolis meeting, Mr. Hamilton being one. Only two of the commissioners attended at Annapolis. This meeting was so slimly attended that nothing definite could be accomplished, but those present determined to issue an address to the people calling another convention to be held in Philadelphia. Mr. Hamilton was selected to prepare this address to the people, which he did, urging that delegates be appointed with full powers by all the states. In simple, yet forcible, language the address set forth the deplorable condition of the country, the evils and dangers which threatened it and the extreme need of reorganizing the government on a stronger basis.

With a view of securing the assent of New York to the proposed convention, against which Governor Clinton was arrayed with all his powerful influence, Mr. Hamilton became a candidate for the legislature and was elected over the Clinton candidate. Governor Clinton was strongly opposed to any extension of the powers of Congress and had prevented the legislature from paying the long overdue revenues to Congress. Mr. Hamilton labored earnestly to secure favorable action on these claims of Congress, but the opposition of the governor was too strong for him. He was able, however, to carry, against the wishes of the governor, a resolution for the appointment of commissioners to the proposed convention at Philadelphia. His resolution called for the appointment of five commissioners, but the Senate reduced the number to three. Mr. Hamilton was elected as one of the three, having for his colleagues Chief Justice Yates and John Lansing, both being uncompromisingly hostile to a stronger government.

When the convention met, May 25, 1787, representatives from nine states were present. At first Mr. Hamilton took little part in the debates, but was indefatigable in working privately among the members. At last he presented his plan to the convention and supported it in a masterful speech of more than five hours in delivery. Under his scheme the senators and President were to be elected for life, by the votes of those who possessed certain property qualifications. It gave to the President the power of appointment of the various state governors.

The Constitution as finally adopted by the convention was not what Colonel Hamilton wanted, but he gave it his earnest endorsement and promptly signed it on the part of his state, his colleagues having abandoned the convention. His great work was not in the formation of the Constitution, but in securing its ratification by the people. The Constitution was not to become operative until ratified by nine states and to secure that ratification Mr. Hamilton addressed himself with all his unrivalled powers as a political writer. A majority of the people of all the states were originally opposed to the Constitution, but it was either this Constitution or eventual disunion. The fight was fiercest in New York, where Governor Clinton used all his great influence to secure its rejection, and in Virginia, where Patrick Henry led the opposition to its ratification.

Mr. Hamilton, under the signature of "Publius," assisted by Mr. Madison and John Jay, issued the series of articles now called "The Federalist," which are still the political text of the country, and they have been often quoted in the courts of justice. He was elected a member of the convention called in New York to take the proposed constitution into consideration and in that convention was almost continually on his feet day after day, meeting and controverting the arguments of the opposition, and finally won the confirmation of the instrument by three votes, a small majority, but enough to make New York a part of the new Union.

In 1788 Colonel Hamilton was again a member of the Continental Congress, the last to meet under the old Articles of Confederation, and secured the adoption of an ordinance fixing the dates and places for setting the new government in motion. Governor Clinton was in control of the New York Legislature and prevented the election of senators to the new Congress and the choice of presidential electors, so the state was not represented in the first election of President Washington or in the upper House of the first Congress.

Upon that first Congress devolved the work of constructing and putting into operation all the administrative machinery of the new government. In August, 1789, it passed an act establishing a Treasury Department, which was approved by President Washington on September 2, and on the eleventh of that month Colonel Hamilton was nominated as Secretary of the new department. The nomination was promptly confirmed by the Senate on the same day and he at once entered upon the discharge of the duties devolved upon him. It was now that he rendered the government and the people his greatest service. The country was without a financial standing at home or abroad; without a revenue of any kind, and without a currency. Congress devolved upon the new Secretary the task of suggesting proper measures to restore the credit of the government that had been forfeited by the failure of the Continental Congress to meet its obligations, to evolve a scheme for securing a revenue, and the method of its collection, and to devise a system of currency that would furnish a sound, uniform and reliable circulating medium to meet the demands of the rapidly increasing business of the country.

As illustrative of the work devolved upon Mr. Hamilton by Congress, it is necessary to mention only a few of the requests made in the course of a single year. He was asked to report, with full details, a plan for raising a revenue, its managements and method of collection, including a scheme for revenue cutters; to furnish an estimate of income and expenditures; to submit a plan for the regulation of the currency; suggestions as to the navigation laws and the regulation of trade; to draft a bill for the regulation of the postoffice, also one to purchase West Point, one for the regulation and disposal of the public lands and one for the settlement of all claims against the government.

He dealt promptly and efficiently with all these matters and in addition drafted a scheme for a judicial system. When he laid his financial scheme before Congress, after the January recess in 1790, it was so complete and comprehensive that it marks an epoch in the history of the country. The new government had inherited from the Continental Congress a heavy foreign and domestic debt. Mr. Hamilton's scheme involved the payment of this debt in full, together with the assumption by Congress, and payment of the debts incurred by the states during the War for Independence. Of course, some parts of this scheme met with vehement opposition, yet such were the clear and convincing argu-

ments of Mr. Hamilton that it was finally adopted as a whole. To reform the currency he advocated the establishment of a national bank. In this, too, he was successful, and the country began an era of prosperity that enabled the government to meet all its current expenses, including the cost of two Indian wars, a semi-war with France and the war with Great Britain, pay the purchase price of Louisiana and Florida, and, in the course of the first third of a century, discharge all the debt it had assumed and accumulate so great a surplus in the treasury as to seriously embarrass the government, with but little change in the customs duties and excise tax levied.

The excise tax caused a great excitement through the western part of Pennsylvania and Virginia and for a time there was a state of insurrection known as the "Whiskey Rebellion." Secretary Hamilton insisted that stern measures should be taken to suppress this insurrection, not for the purpose of collecting the tax alone but to vindicate the government in its right to levy such a tax, and to at once establish the fact that the new government was strong enough under the Constitution to maintain itself. The militia was called out and some regular troops sent to Pittsburgh. President Washington and Secretary Hamilton accompanied the troops a part of the way.

The power to establish a bank was contested and added to the dissensions already existing in the cabinet, but President Washington yielded to the arguments of his minister of finance. As might have been expected the Secretary made some enemies in Congress among those who had always opposed the formation of a strong central government and those enemies attempted to break him down by bringing against him charges of corruption, but so masterly was his defense, and so complete his showing of the condition of the treasury affairs, that when the final vote was taken the resolution received but four affirmative votes.

When the attempt was made to involve this country in the wars then raging in Europe, Secretary Hamilton stood by the President in his determination to maintain strict neutrality. For some time he held back the payments due the government of France for monies and munitions supplied during the Revolutionary War, until a government might be established in France that would show some signs of permanency. This gave his enemies in Congress an opportunity to make another attack on his administration, but it failed. Having completed the work of establishing the financial system of the country on a solid basis, he resigned from the cabinet January 31, 1795, to return to the practice of his profession.

During the administration of President John Adams a serious war with France became imminent, and Congress having authorized the President to increase the army, General Washington was made lieutenant general, and Hamilton, Knox and Pinckney, major generals. To General Hamilton was given the task of organizing the army for active service. He formulated a plan to fight France through her ally, Spain,

wresting from that government Louisiana and Florida, and by this means get full possession of the Mississippi River, a thing much desired by the people of Kentucky. He urged upon Mr. Pickering, Secretary of State, the importance of getting possession of Florida and Louisiana, saying he had long been convinced the possession of those countries was essential to the permanency of the Union, a policy which President Jefferson later carried out as to Louisiana and President Monroe as to Florida. He drafted a plan for the fortification of New York harbor, the state of New York having appropriated money for that purpose. The work did not come within the scope of his duties in the army, but he seemed to be called upon in all matters of supreme moment.

The flurry of war being over General Hamilton returned once more to the practice of his profession. He was regarded as the real head and leader of the Federalist party, and in 1800 sought to bring about the defeat of President Adams for a second term by securing enough votes for Mr. Pinckney as to place him first, thus giving him the presidency. The result of his maneuvering was to place Jefferson and Burr in the lead with a tie vote, throwing the election into the House of Representatives. There he aided by his influence to elect Mr. Jefferson, preferring him to Colonel Burr.

Hamilton and Burr had long been political and professional rivals and the latter, taking the occasion of some words of condemnation used by the former, challenged General Hamilton to a duel. The challenge was accepted, the meeting taking place at Weehawken, New Jersey, July 11, 1804. General Hamilton received a fatal wound and died the next day at his home in New York.

OLIVER WOLCOTT, JR.

OLIVER WOLCOTT, JR.—Secretary of the Treasury from February 2, 1795, to December 31, 1800. Born at Litchfield, Connecticut, January 11, 1760. Son of Oliver and Lorraine (Collins) Wolcott. Educated at Yale College. Married, June 1, 1785, Miss Elizabeth Stuyhton. Died in New York city, June 1, 1833.

1788—Comptroller of Connecticut.
1789—Auditor of the Treasury Department.
1791—Comptroller of the Treasury.
1795—Secretary of the Treasury.
1801—United States District Judge for Connecticut.
1817—Governor of Connecticut.

The Wolcott family were among the earliest of the New England colonists, the first being Henry Wolcott, who emigrated from England in 1630 to escape religious persecution. The family soon became distinguished in the affairs of the colony. Roger Wolcott, grandfather of the future Secretary of the Treasury, was, at one time, colonial governor of Connecticut, and Oliver Wolcott, Sr., his father, was a general

in the Continental Army during the War of the Revolution, and was afterwards governor of the state, a member of the Continental Congress and one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence.

Young Oliver was born in Litchfield, Connecticut, January 11, 1760. His mother was a woman of education and she early began teaching her young son, who, at the age of four years, could read and spell better than the average lad of twice his age. At the age of eleven years he entered a grammar school at Litchfield, and when but thirteen, in opposition to the wishes of his parents, he went to Yale College. Being convinced he was too young to enter upon a collegiate career he returned to the grammar school for another year, when, finally, at the age of fourteen he began his college course. He graduated in 1778 and immediately began the study of law. During 1779-80 he served in the quartermaster's department of the army and on the staff of his father. In 1781, when he had reached his maturity, he was admitted to the bar. He at once removed to Hartford to practice his profession, but on account of financial stress was glad to accept a position as clerk in the office of the Committee of Pay-table, at a salary of fifty cents per day. In January, 1782, the General Assembly of Connecticut appointed him one of the members of the Committee of Pay-table, at that time acting as a general board of accounts. In 1784 he was appointed a commissioner for the state of Connecticut, in concert with Oliver Ellsworth, to settle the accounts and claims of the state against the Continental government. In May, 1788, he was appointed comptroller of the state.

Mr. Wolcott was an ardent supporter of the Constitution of 1787 and gave his influence to secure its ratification by the people of Connecticut. The act of Congress approved September 2, 1789, establishing a Treasury Department, provided for the appointment of a secretary, treasurer, comptroller and auditor. The position of auditor was immediately tendered by President Washington to Mr. Wolcott. The salary was fifteen hundred dollars per year, and deciding that would be sufficient to support his family, Mr. Wolcott accepted and at once entered upon the discharge of the duties of the office. The labor was onerous as it required the putting into operation a complete system of keeping the accounts of the government and the manner of passing upon all claims. The previous training of Mr. Wolcott enabled him to adopt a system and put it in operation in a very short time. He filled this position until in April, 1781, when, on the death of Comptroller Everleigh, he was transferred to that office. He was a devoted friend of Secretary Hamilton and was versed in all the financial theories of the Secretary and was thoroughly acquainted with all the details of the department. When Mr. Hamilton resigned as head of the Treasury Department President Washington at once nominated Mr. Wolcott as his successor. He was confirmed on February 2, 1795, and immediately assumed the duties of the office. He served during the remainder of the administration of President Washington and through that of President John Adams until

December 31, 1800, when he resigned to accept the United States judgeship of Connecticut.

As head of the Treasury Department he carried out the plans of his predecessor and under his management the department became more efficient than before. At the outset his administration was attended with some unforeseen difficulties owing to the disturbed conditions in Europe. Congress had authorized the President to borrow twelve million dollars for refunding purposes and to discharge the overdue interest on the public debt. Secretary Wolcott endeavored to effect the object of the act and met with no success, except as to that part of the debt which was owing to France. The government of France was desirous of having and maintaining a fund in this country for the purchase of supplies and an arrangement was easily effected with that government. The balance of the debt sought to be refunded was owing to Holland and Holland was greatly in need of money, but Secretary Wolcott displayed fine financiering ability and the difficulties were gradually overcome.

In the summer of 1795 the famous Fauchet Letters fell into the hands of the British ministry, who speedily caused them to be sent to the British minister in this country. They were translated and made known to Secretary Wolcott. The letters gravely involved Edmund Randolph, Secretary of State. Secretary Wolcott consulted with the Secretary of War and the Attorney General and an urgent message was sent to the President for his speedy return to Philadelphia. The retirement of Secretary Randolph from the cabinet speedily followed.

In 1799 President Adams broke with his cabinet, being convinced they were in close correspondence with Mr. Hamilton, who was known to be opposed to the President's re-election. Secretary Wolcott was a staunch Federalist and was known to be a friend of the former Secretry of the Treasury, but such was the confidence of President Adams in his political integrity that he was retained when the other members of the cabinet were asked to resign. In November, 1800, Secretary Wolcott determined to resign at the close of the year, but the President hesitated long before accepting the resignation.

The resignation was accompanied by a most peculiar action on the part of the Secretary. On November 22 he addressed a communication direct to the Speaker of the House of Representatives, in which he said: "I deem it proper through you to inform the House of Representatives that I have obtained the permission of the President of the United States to resign the office of Secretary of the Treasury at the close of the present year." He then submitted the whole of his conduct as head of the department to an investigation by the House. The letter was referred to a committee with instructions to examine into the state of the department. The committee made an exhaustive report, commending in the highest terms the administration of the office by Mr. Wolcott. Later, after Mr. Gallatin became Secretary, President Jefferson

ordered him to make a thorough examination of the department from the beginning. Secretary Gallatin was an extreme partisan, but after a most thorough and exhaustive examination he reported to the President that neither fraud nor mistake had been made anywhere and that the department had been most admirably managed.

A short time after the retirement of Secretary Wolcott the treasury building was partly destroyed by fire. A charge was made at once that an attempt had been made to destroy the building for the purpose of covering up some frauds and that Mr. Wolcott had connived at the firing of the building, but a committee of Congress fully exonerated him.

During the last days of the administration of President Adams Congress passed a law largely increasing the number of United States judges and in February, 1801, President Adams sent to the Senate the name of Mr. Wolcott as judge of the new district composed of Connecticut, Vermont and New York. The nomination was unanimously confirmed, but two years later the courts were abolished by a repeal of the law establishing them.

In 1802 Mr. Wolcott removed to New York city and engaged in the commercial business and in 1812 assisted in establishing the Bank of North America, becoming its first president. In 1815 he returned to his native town and engaged in manufacturing. The next year a new political party was organized in opposition to the existing law taxing all the church property in the state, except that of the Congregationalists. Mr. Wolcott was made the candidate of the new party for governor of the state, but was defeated at the polls. He was elected in 1817, however. In 1818 he presided over the Constitutional Convention of Connecticut.

ALBERT GALLATIN

ALBERT GALLATIN—Secretary of the Treasury from May 14, 1801, to February 9, 1814. Born in Geneva, Switzerland, January 25, 1761. Son of Jean and Sophia (Rolla) Gallatin. Educated at University of Geneva. Married, in May, 1789, Sophie Allegre; November 11, 1793, Miss Hannah Nicholson. Died at Astoria, New York, August 12, 1849.

1789—Member Pennsylvania Constitutional Convention.
1790—Member Pennsylvania Legislature.
1793—United States Senator. (Seat declared vacant.)
1794—Member House of Representatives.
1801—Secretary of the Treasury.
1814—Member of Peace Commission.
1815—Envoy to negotiate commercial treaty with England.
1816—Minister to France.
1826—Minister to Great Britain.

Of all the European citizens who have been engaged from time to time in the service of the United States, Albert Gallatin was the most distinguished. He was a man of many talents; talents which amounted in some directions almost to genius. His services to America were very great as the head of the financial department of the government and as a diplomat, and, in a much less degree, as a legislator, for, in his six years in Congress, he was nearly always found in opposition to the administration and was, by many, regarded as un-American. He also possessed high attainments in science and was highly regarded by the men of science in both America and Europe.

Albert Gallatin was born in Geneva, Switzerland, and his coming to America was more from a boyish freak than from any thought of making his future home in this country. The Gallatin family was one that long had been prominent in Switzerland. His father died when Albert was but an infant and at the age of nine years he was left wholly an orphan, committed to the care of a distant relative of his father. Young Gallatin remained under the care of this relative until in January, 1773, when he was sent to a boarding school, and two years later to the academy of Geneva, from which he was graduated in 1779. Of his studies in the academy little is known, but history must have been a prominent part, for none of the American statesmen of his period displayed a more accurate knowledge of the facts of history.

His student days were just at the time when the writings of Rousseau and Voltaire were stirring the masses of Europe, and young Gallatin became infatuated with many of their theories. His relatives succeeded in securing for him an offer of a commission in the Austrian army, but he declared he would never serve a tyrant. With two friends he planned a trip to America, and one of these did finally join with Gallatin. On April 1, 1780, the two secretly left Geneva and hurried to Nantes. The American colonies were then in their struggle with Great Britain, but so far as can be learned it was with no thought of joining the colonists in the war the two young men sailed for America. The family of Mr. Gallatin, discovering his intention of going to America, supplied him with letters of introduction to distinguished Americans, one of them being addressed to Dr. Franklin, then representing the colonies at Paris. Dr. Franklin gave him one in turn to Richard Bache, his son-in-law.

The two young adventurers sailed from l'Orient May 27, 1780, and after a long voyage landed at Cape Ann on July 14. With an eye to trade they brought with them a small venture of tea. In the unsettled condition of affairs they found difficulty in disposing of their merchandise, for there was no money. They were finally induced to take their venture to the northern part of Maine, where they at last bartered their tea for furs. In October they returned to Boston, where Mr. Gallatin opened a school for teaching the French language.

About this time he succeeded in getting the good-will of Dr. Samuel

Cooper, one of the leading men of Boston. Through the influence of Dr. Cooper the president of Harvard College permitted Mr. Gallatin to teach the French language at the college, and a large number of students availed themselves of this opportunity to acquire a knowledge of that language. In this occupation he remained in Cambridge about one year. The War for Independence being over, the young teacher left Boston for New York.

While in Boston he made the acquaintance of a French gentleman who had come to America to prosecute a claim against the state of Virginia, and the two were companions on the journey to New York. His traveling companion made him an offer to accompany him to Richmond, Virginia, and assist him in pressing his claim, an offer which Mr. Gallatin gladly accepted. Later the two men purchased several thousand acres of land in Western Pennsylvania, near where the city of Pittsburgh now stands, and also a large amount in Virginia.

Mr. Gallatin, for a time, made his home in Richmond, taking the agency of his partner to settle colonists on the land purchases. For some years he spent much of his time in exploring and surveying the lands purchased in Western Pennsylvania. While temporarily residing in Richmond he made the acquaintance of Patrick Henry and some of the other leading men of the state, an acquaintanceship that later was of material assistance to him in settling his lands.

He early began to take an interest in politics, and when the question of ratifying the Constitution of 1787 was before the people of Pennsylvania he arrayed himself against it, basing his opposition mainly on the ground that a strong government was always detrimental to the interests of the people. After the ratification he proposed the organization of a new party to demand a new convention and a revocation of the ratification. A meeting for this purpose was held and a number of delegates attended, but the meeting was followed by no results.

In 1789 a convention was called in Pennsylvania to revise the state constitution, and Mr. Gallatin was elected as one of the delegates. He was strongly opposed to the purpose of the convention and endeavored to organize an opposition in the western part of the state. He held that it was a dangerous proceeding to alter or change a constitution that had been once accepted by the people; to admit that theory would be to open the door to constant revolutions. The convention met in Philadelphia and remained in session for nearly a year. So far as the record goes Mr. Gallatin did not take any prominent part in the proceedings.

In 1790 he was elected one of the members of the State Legislature from Fayette county, and then began his active public career. He was twice re-elected without opposition. In a memorandum left by him it is stated that in the sessions of 1791-92 he served on thirty-five committees, prepared all their reports and drafted all their bills. He further states that his attention was turned exclusively to administra-

tive laws and not to legislation properly so-called. He was especially interested in securing a better educational system.

What is known as the "Whiskey Insurrection" was one of the troubles of President Washington's administration. When the new Constitution went into effect the government had no source of revenue. The assumption by Congress of the foreign and domestic debt left by the Continental Congress and of the war debts of the states made necessary a large revenue and a tax was levied on whiskey. This aroused intense dissatisfaction in Western Pennsylvania and Virginia. Meetings were held in the western counties of Pennsylvania and resistance was made to the collection of the tax, one of the excise officers being killed and the houses and papers of others destroyed.

At first Mr. Gallatin sympathized with the malcontents and took an active part in their meetings, but later, when the government prepared to put down the insurrection by an armed force, he counselled submission. By this time he had come to be the commanding figure in the western part of the state and wielded a wide influence.

At this time he determined to make an extended visit to Europe, but his plans were suddenly changed by the action of the Pennsylvania Legislature in electing him to the United States Senate. This was a remarkable compliment, as a majority of the legislature were Federalists, while Mr. Gallatin was a strong Republican. He was elected by the decisive vote of 45 to 37. His senatorial term was not to begin for several months and he remained in Philadelphia as a member of the legislature to complete some important legislative work.

He took his seat in the Senate December 2, 1793. Immediately there was presented to the Senate a petition from some citizens of Pennsylvania setting up that Mr. Gallatin was not eligible to a seat in the Senate, not having been a citizen of the United States for the length of time required by the Constitution. Mr. Gallatin had himself called the attention of the members of the Pennsylvania Legislature to his probable ineligibility. Mr. Gallatin had landed in the United States in 1780, while still a minor. He took the oath of allegiance and citizenship in Virginia in 1785. Thus he lacked a few months of having been a citizen the required nine years if the time were counted from the date of taking the oath. The Senate decided the case according to the facts and Mr. Gallatin lost his seat.

In 1794 he was elected again to the Pennsylvania Legislature, and at the same time elected a representative in Congress. His election to the legislature was declared void on the statement that, owing to the disturbed condition of the country on account of the "Whiskey Insurrection," a fair election could not be had. He was promptly re-elected and returned to his seat, and remained there until the following March, when he secured a leave of absence. In December, 1795, he took his seat in the national House of Representatives. There he joined with Madison and the others who were opposing Washington's administra-

tion. The country was in the throes of dissatisfaction on account of the Jay Treaty, and the Republicans in the House used every effort to embarrass the administration. While the treaty was the open subject of opposition, the real intent was to subordinate the chief executive to the will of the House.

The first step was to tighten the control of the House over the Treasury Department, and in this effort Mr. Gallatin took the lead. His first measure was for the appointment of a Standing Committee on Finance. This was the beginning of the present Committee on Ways and Means, the most important committee of the House. To this committee the estimates for the coming year were referred. Then report after report was called for from the Secretary of the Treasury, the object of Mr. Gallatin being to establish the expenses of the government in each department on a permanent footing, for which annual appropriations should be made. Every measure presented by the friends of the administration met with the determined hostility of Mr. Gallatin.

In the debates concerning the making of appropriations to carry the Jay Treaty into effect, Mr. Gallatin and Mr. Madison led on the part of those opposing the treaty. This was before he had been a member of the House one year. Three other treaties were before Congress—one being with the Western Indians, one with Spain and one with the Dey of Algiers. These met with no opposition, but the struggle over that with Great Britain was long and bitter, Mr. Gallatin always in the lead. An attempt was made to strengthen the navy, and this also met his fierce opposition. His attitude on these questions shows the mental caliber of the man and the strength of his democracy, for he was ever in opposition to any measure tending toward a strong government.

The depredations of the French upon our commerce at last forced President Adams to advise Congress to take some steps in defense. Mr. Gallatin opposed every measure of the kind, saying: "It is better to suffer the French to go on with their depredations than to take any steps which may lead to war." His theory was that the losses occasioned by war would be much greater than those which would result if the depredations continued without open war.

On the formation of President Jefferson's cabinet in 1801, Mr. Gallatin was his choice for the Treasury Department. The financial system of the country was yet in its infancy. The genius of Hamilton had worked out a scheme of revenue ample enough to meet the ordinary expenses of the government and provide for the gradual extinction of the public debt and, through the United States Bank, there was an ample supply of a safe and uniform currency. The work begun by Hamilton had been carried on by his successor. To complete this work required the services of an able financier and administrative officer. The attention of Mr. Jefferson had been attracted to Mr. Gallatin by his extreme republicanism, as he had led the minority party in the House during almost the whole of six years service in the House. It

was natural President Jefferson should desire to have him as a member of his cabinet.

The Senate was still, however, in the hands of the Federalists, and as Mr. Gallatin had deeply offended that party by his opposition to the administration, it was doubtful if he could be confirmed, so it was arranged that the Treasury Department should not be filled until after the adjournment of the special session of the Senate, and then Mr. Gallatin was to be given a recess appointment. Secretary Dexter, of the Adams cabinet, remained as head of the department until May 6, 1801. On the fourteenth of that month Mr. Gallatin was appointed and took charge of the department.

His views on public finance were well known. While a member of the Pennsylvania Legislature he had attracted the attention of public men by his superior knowledge of finance. In November, 1796, he published a sketch of the finances of the United States, in which he laid down as one of the cardinal principles of correct finance the extinguishment of the public debt. He followed this with another in July, 1800, on the financial operations of the United States, in which he took strong issues with the action of Congress in assuming the debts of the states.

Before entering upon the active duties as Secretary of the Treasury, he submitted his views on finance at length to President Jefferson, and very strongly insisted the policy of his administration should be a curtailment of the appropriations for the military and naval establishments. Throughout his whole public service he exhibited a distrust of the army and the navy, contending they nurtured a disposition to override the rights of the people and to breed war.

As a working secretary Mr. Gallatin has never been surpassed. On taking personal charge of the department he first addressed his energies to the perfection of the internal revenue system, so far as it could be done without new legislation. He brought his wonderful capacity for continuous labor into use to familiarize himself with all the details of the actual working of every branch of the department. To be more thoroughly equipped to answer all interrogatories by Congress he took a thorough course of bookkeeping and studied the details of keeping the accounts of the disbursements.

The administration of President Jefferson was a triumvirate, composed of the President and Secretaries Madison and Gallatin. The other members of the cabinet were rarely consulted. Secretary Gallatin had two important objects in view as head of the Treasury Department, and to the accomplishment of these he bent all his energies and the resources of his mind, and on them he constantly insisted. The first was to discharge the public debt as rapidly as possible and the other to reduce taxation. In these two objects President Jefferson concurred, but to reduce taxation the Secretary insisted that the expenditures of the government be pared down to the very lowest limit,

and to that he could never get the President to wholly agree. Mr. Gallatin was a lover of peace; he believed the safety and well being of the country depended upon maintaining peace; that preparations for war were all wrong, hence he wanted the navy kept down to as small a number of ships as possible. On this point there was continual wrangling between him and the Secretary of the Navy.

He wanted to at once abolish all internal taxes. He held all such taxes to be wrong in principle and to be resorted to only in case of war when the needs of the government would be extreme. It was with these ideas he entered upon the discharge of his duties. He favored the Bank of the United States, but the President was suspicious of it, and in 1803 suggested the government deposits be used in such a way as to make the management of the bank republican, and intimated that if the law stood in the way of this much-desired end it should be amended at the next session of Congress; but Mr. Gallatin would not heed the suggestion and continued to administer the department on strict business principles. He regarded the bank as absolutely necessary for the financial operations of the government.

The purchase of Louisiana was the extraordinary financial measure of President Jefferson's administration. Though the obligation for the consideration money of the purchase—fifteen million dollars—was a large sum in proportion to the then existing revenues of the United States, it did not derange Secretary Gallatin's plans, but was brought within the general scheme for funding and reduction without friction. With the terms of the contract for the purchase of Louisiana Secretary Gallatin had nothing to do, they having been arranged by Mr. Livingston and Mr. Monroe, the two American commissioners. He was not satisfied, however, with the price at which the Barings had agreed to take the stock of the United States for reimbursement for the money advanced, and wrote to President Jefferson that the low price at which the stock had been sold was not ascribable to the state of the public credit, nor to any act of Mr. Jefferson's administration, and particularly to the administration of the Treasury Department, and added that at that time the American threes were worth one per cent more on the English market than the English threes. At the time this letter was written the government under the Constitution had been in operation but fourteen years.

The Louisiana purchase and the admirable manner in which Mr. Gallatin had conducted the financial department were important factors in the re-election of President Jefferson. This assured Mr. Gallatin of an extension of at least four years as head of the Treasury Department, giving him ample time to work out to conclusion his scheme for the extinguishment of the public debt. He proposed to convert the outstanding obligations into six per cent stock, which Congress readily authorized. By this means, when the war with Great Britain looked inevitable in the summer of 1807, Mr. Gallatin was able to

report a full treasury, the amount of specie being more than eight and a half millions. This sum looks infinitesimal when compared with the great piles of specie now carried in the treasury vaults, but it was a great sum in 1807.

Secretary Gallatin strenuously opposed the war, and in his report to Congress in 1807 he pointed out that in case there should be a war the revenues of the United States would be seriously impaired and discussed whether the money to carry on a war should be raised by taxation or by loans, favoring the system of loans rather than an increase of taxation. President Jefferson attempted to avoid war by placing an embargo on American shipping. This did not meet the views of Secretary Gallatin, and he wrote to the President that in every point of view—privations, sufferings, revenue, effect on the enemy and on politics at home—war was to be preferred to a permanent embargo. At a later period he pointed out that the embargo had caused a greater loss than a war would have done.

As Secretary of the Treasury Mr. Gallatin established a firm hold upon Congress, and was able to secure its co-operation in all his financial measures. As such Secretary he considerably modified his views regarding the powers of the Federal government. In making the Louisiana purchase President Jefferson thought an amendment to the Constitution would be necessary. Secretary Gallatin took the opposite view, adopting Mr. Hamilton's theory of implied powers. Nor was the Secretary always in perfect accord with the foreign policy of the President. The foreign policy frequently complicated his financial arrangements very greatly, but he was able to keep on discharging the public debt, although he measurably failed in securing the reduction of taxation he so ardently desired.

By 1807 the treasury began to show a surplus, and then Secretary Gallatin brought forward his scheme for the extensive system of internal improvements. In this President Jefferson thought an amendment to the Constitution would be necessary, but the Secretary held that Congress possessed all the power needed. His report of 1808 on the internal improvement question is one of the ablest financial papers ever submitted to Congress by a Secretary of the Treasury.

While he was advocating his scheme for a system of internal improvements affairs became more complicated with both France and England and he was forced at last to recognize the necessity for providing for the national defense, and with his usual foresight suggested an elaborate system of arsenals, magazines, fortifications, and the strengthening of the navy. In this, however, he had a steady opponent in the President, who preferred his gunboat policy.

When he became President Mr. Madison retained Mr. Gallatin at the head of the Treasury Department, but by this time the difficulties of the position had been greatly increased. The entire reliance of Mr. Gallatin for a revenue to meet the wants of the government was on

customs duties, tonnage duties and land sales. The effect of the embargo had been to greatly reduce the receipts from customs and tonnage duties. In his report to Congress in December, 1809, he announced that the expenses of the government, exclusive of payments on the public debt, had exceeded the revenue by one million three hundred thousand dollars. To meet this deficiency he was authorized to make a loan.

Secretary Gallatin was the overshadowing influence in the cabinet of President Madison, the other members standing in an attitude of hostility. For a long time there was a feud between Secretary Gallatin and Robert Smith, Secretary of State. This feud had begun when they were both members of President Jefferson's cabinet, Mr. Smith being Secretary of the Navy. On the accession of President Madison Mr. Smith was transferred from the Navy Department to that of State, and this only intensified the feud. President Madison really desired Mr. Gallatin for head of the State Department, but there were doubts as to his being confirmed by the Senate, as a marked hostility had grown up against him in Congress; so Mr. Smith was transferred from the Navy Department, the President mainly acting as his own secretary in all matters relating to foreign nations.

At last Secretary Gallatin intimated to the President that he would be forced to resign. General Samuel Smith, a brother of the Secretary of State, was a member of the Senate, and to avoid complications with him the President suggested that an exchange of departments be made, Mr. Smith taking that of the treasury, the understanding being that Mr. Gallatin was to be really the head of both departments. This suggestion was negatived by Mr. Gallatin and the President authorized him to sound Governor Monroe of Virginia as to his willingness to enter the cabinet. This resulted in the retirement of Mr. Smith.

In 1812, in anticipation that war with Great Britain would soon be declared, he suggested to Congress the propriety of effecting a series of loans of ten million dollars a year to meet the war expenses, and further, that the matter of interest be left to the President. He also repeated a former suggestion that treasury notes bearing interest be issued, which would, to that extent, diminish the amount directly borrowed and at the same time provide a safe circulating medium passing as currency; but he insisted that the issue be strictly limited to an amount that would circulate without depreciation. He had no doubts as to his ability to procure enough funds by loans to meet the extraordinary expenses of a war. Congress authorized a loan of eleven million dollars and also an issue of treasury notes.

During the continuance of the war the Treasury Department was frequently handicapped by the tardy action of Congress and at one time the treasury was practically beggared before a new loan could be made. In April, 1813, Secretary Gallatin practically severed his connection with the Treasury Department, although he was its osten-

sible head for a year longer. President Madison was very anxious for peace and appointed, in 1813, a commission to treat for peace, Mr. Gallatin being one of the commissioners. After he had sailed for Europe the Senate rejected his nomination, and on February 9, 1914, Congress declared his seat as Secretary of the Treasury vacant on account of his absence in Europe. The same day he was again nominated as one of the peace envoys and this time he was confirmed.

The labor of securing a satisfactory treaty of peace was long and tedious and it required all the diplomatic skill of Mr. Gallatin to keep peace between John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay, the other two members of the commission. That a treaty was finally concluded was largely due to the calm judgment of Mr. Gallatin. After the treaty of peace was signed Mr. Gallatin was sent to London to negotiate a commercial treaty with Great Britain. He returned to the United States in July, 1815.

In November of that year President Madison tendered him his old position as Secretary of the Treasury, or, if he preferred it, the mission to France. After a long hesitation he chose the French mission. He reached Paris in July, 1816, and was received with great cordiality. He remained in France until 1823, when he returned to the United States. In 1826 he was sent by President John Quincy Adams as minister to London. He held this position only one year, when he once more returned to this country and became president of a bank in New York city.

GEORGE WASHINGTON CAMPBELL

GEORGE W. CAMPBELL—Secretary of the Treasury from February 9, 1814, to September 26, 1814. Born in the shire of Sutherland, Scotland, in 1768. Educated at Princeton College. Died at Nashville, Tennessee, February 17, 1848.

1803—Member national House of Representatives.
1811—United States Senator.
1814—Secretary of the Treasury.
1815—United States Senator.
1818—Minister to Russia.
1831—Member of French Claims Commission.

When Congress declared, in February, 1814, the office of Secretary of the Treasury to be vacant on account of the absence of Secretary Gallatin in Europe acting as a member of the peace commission, President Madison had trouble in filling the place in the Treasury Department. It had been his desire that Secretary Gallatin should remain at the head of the department and on his return from his peace mission again assume its active duties, but Congress decided that by accepting the place on the peace commission Mr. Gallatin had vacated the department.

President Madison first tendered the vacant place to Richard Rush, at that time comptroller of the treasury, but Mr. Rush declined. The choice then fell on George W. Campbell, then a senator in Congress from the state of Tennessee. Mr. Campbell had served three terms as member of the House of Representatives and then had been elected to the Senate to fill a vacancy. In Congress he was noted for his radical republicanism and had been a firm adherent of Presidents Jefferson and Madison.

While a member of the House he had a difficulty with Barent Gardenier, a representative from New York, and a duel ensued in which the New York representative was seriously wounded. This was the first duel to be fought on the Bladensburg grounds which afterwards became noted as a dueling place.

As head of the Treasury Department Mr. Campbell soon demoralized the finances of the country, the bankers and moneyed men having no confidence in his financial knowledge or ability. Congress rejected every suggestion made by him as Secretary. This lack of confidence and his want of administrative ability became so apparent that in the September following his appointment the President asked for his resignation. The next year he was elected to the Senate and served until April, 1818, when he resigned to accept the position of minister to Russia. His career in Russia was uneventful.

ALEXANDER JAMES DALLAS

ALEXANDER JAMES DALLAS—Secretary of the Treasury from October 14, 1814, to October 21, 1816. Born on the island of Jamaica, June 21, 1759. Son of Dr. Robert C. and Elizabeth (Carmack) Dallas. Educated at Edinburgh, Scotland, and Westminster, England. Married Miss Arabella Maria Smith. Died at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on January 16, 1817.

1831—Member French Claims Commission.
1801—United States Attorney for Eastern Pennsylvania District.
1814—Secretary of the Treasury.

The Dallas family from which the American minister of finance came was an ancient one, the genealogical tree reaching back several centuries. Alexander James was born on the island of Jamaica. His father was a Scotch physician engaged in the practice of his profession on the island. Having an abundance of means and desiring to give his son ample opportunity for an education he sent him first to Edinburgh and then to Westminster. While securing his education he married, and this, together with the death of his father, caused him to return to his native island.

The prominence of his father and his own acquirements in law, to which he had devoted his studies while at Westminster, secured him

the appointment of chancellor of the island, with a promise of speedy promotion. The continued illness of his wife caused him to seek a climate more congenial to her health and in 1783 he emigrated to the United States. He chose Philadelphia for his future home and there designed to enter upon the practice of his profession, but under a law of that state a residence of two years was required before admission to the bar. To occupy the time necessary to perfect his legal residence he accepted a clerkship in the office of the commission appointed to settle revolutionary claims.

He was admitted to the bar in Philadelphia in 1786 and rapidly gained eminence as a lawyer. He did much writing for the press and for a time edited the *Columbian Magazine*. He also wrote plays which were presented at the local theater. He early took an active interest in political matters and in 1791 was appointed secretary of the commonwealth, an office he held under three successive appointments until 1801. During what is known as the "Whiskey Insurrection" he acted as paymaster of the troops and in that capacity accompanied the troops to Pittsburgh.

He was one of the founders of the Pennsylvania Democratic society, in 1793, and became an active politician. The Pennsylvania Democratic society was organized mainly to give expression to the admiration of the American people for the French revolution. While acting as secretary of the commonwealth Mr. Dallas published an edition of the laws of Pennsylvania and four volumes of reports of the decisions of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania and of the United States. In 1801 the governor appointed him recorder for the city of Philadelphia and the same year President Jefferson gave him the appointment of United States Attorney for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania, and for some time he held both offices. The question arose as to the legality of his thus holding the two offices and, although it was decided in his favor, he resigned the recordership. He continued to hold the office of district attorney until he was called into the cabinet by President Madison as Secretary of the Treasury.

Mr. Dallas had been a warm friend of Mr. Gallatin, entertaining the same views as to national finances. When he entered upon the discharge of the duties as head of the Treasury Department he found the department in a woeful state of confusion and the treasury almost bankrupt. For more than ten months after Mr. Gallatin vacated the office of secretary the department was without any distinct head, its affairs being directed by William Jones, Secretary of the Navy, acting as *ad interim* Secretary of the Treasury. Then came the selection by the President of George W. Campbell, of Tennessee, as Secretary of the Treasury.

Under the administration of Mr. Campbell it had been impossible for the government to effect a loan, while the treasury notes could be

circulated only at a ruinous discount. The war with Great Britain was still going on and the demands upon the treasury were rapidly increasing. Such was the condition of the finances in October, 1814, when President Madison suddenly called Mr. Dallas to take the head of the Treasury Department. The new Secretary at once recommended the making of a new loan, but he found difficulty in securing favorable action on the part of Congress. He also favored the rechartering of the United States Bank. So great was the confidence he inspired in the capitalists of the country and in the members of Congress that he soon had full sway. Under his wise and energetic management he was quickly able to float treasury notes at par. The recharter of the bank followed and financial prosperity was secured.

Secretary Dallas was called upon by Congress to suggest a new tariff law. He proposed to divide the duties into three classes: (1) Articles of which the home supply was sufficient to satisfy the demand were to bear a duty of thirty-five per cent; (2) articles of which the domestic supply was only partly sufficient to meet the demands, such as cotton and woollen fabrics, iron and distilled spirits, were to bear a duty of twenty per cent; (3) articles of which the home production was small or nothing were to bear a simple revenue tax.

He persistently urged a return to specie payments. The difficulties of the office were extreme, such as to try the abilities and resourcefulness of the most astute financier. He found his most determined opponent in the two senators from Pennsylvania. He thus described the situation: "The treasury was suffering under every kind of embarrassment. The demands upon it were great in amount, while the means to satisfy them were comparatively small, precarious in collection and difficult in their application."

Mr. Dallas remained in the office to organize the bank which had been chartered at his earnest solicitation and to make certain a speedy return to specie payment and then he resigned. He found the government bankrupt in means and credit, and left it, at the end of two years' administration of the Treasury Department, with credit restored and with a surplus in the treasury of twenty million dollars. His measures not only relieved the country from financial disorders but brought prosperity.

For six months Mr. Dallas, in addition to his duties as Secretary of the Treasury, acted as *ad interim* Secretary of War and was efficient in reducing the army to a peace footing. During the entire administration of President Madison there was much friction between the members of the cabinet; and Mr. Dallas, desiring to escape from this unpleasant situation, tendered on April 14, 1816, his resignation of the Treasury Department, to take effect on the first of October ensuing. He served until the twentieth of that month and then retired to private life, but died within three months.

WILLIAM HARRIS CRAWFORD

WILLIAM H. CRAWFORD—Secretary of War from August 6, 1815, to October 21, 1816; Secretary of the Treasury from October 22, 1816, to March 3, 1825. Born in Amherst county, Virginia, September 24, 1772. Son of Joel and Fanny (Harris) Crawford. Educated at Carmel Academy, Georgia. Married Miss Gardine. Died in Elbert county, Georgia, September 15, 1834.

1802—Member Georgia Legislature.
1807—United States Senator.
1813—Minister to France.
1815—Secretary of War.
1816—Secretary of the Treasury.
1827—Judge of the Northern Georgia District.

For more than nine years William H. Crawford, of Georgia, was head of the Treasury Department, serving during a critical period of the treasury. Born in Virginia in 1772, he removed with his parents to the Edgefield district, South Carolina, in 1779, and in 1783 to Columbia county, Georgia. At the age of seven years he assisted his father in the work of the farm, attending the neighboring schools a few weeks each year. While living in South Carolina his father was captured by the British and as a rebel was taken to the jail in Camden, where he was confined for several months.

After the removal of the family to Columbia county, Georgia, young William received a fair education from private tutors and for a time he attended Carmel Academy. At the age of sixteen he began teaching and followed that vocation for three or four years. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1799 and began the practice at Lexington, Georgia. Almost from the first he took a high place in his profession and in 1800 was appointed by the legislature a member of a commission to codify the laws of the state, Mr. Crawford doing most of the work. After serving a term or two in the legislature he was elected to the United States Senate in 1807 to fill a vacancy occasioned by the death of Senator Abraham Baldwin, and at the expiration of his term was elected his own successor by the unanimous vote of the legislature. He served until March 23, 1813, when he resigned to accept the position of minister to France after having declined the secretaryship of war.

As senator Mr. Crawford was ever foremost in the debates upon all important subjects coming before the Senate. He was an earnest advocate of the war with Great Britain. He was chairman of the special committee appointed to consider the rechartering of the United States Bank, a measure he strongly favored. His speech in the Senate on that question was one of the strongest arguments made in favor of the bill. On the death of Vice President George Clinton, in April, 1812, Mr. Crawford was elected president *pro tempore* of the Senate.

President Madison had a great deal of trouble with his War Department, and in 1813 offered the position to Senator Crawford, who de-

clined it. Not long afterward he accepted the mission to France, a position of great importance at the time and surrounded with many difficulties. He served with credit for two years, when he resigned to become the agent of Lafayette for the sale of the land that had been donated him in the United States.

On March 2, 1815, President Madison nominated Mr. Crawford for Secretary of War. He was confirmed the next day, but was not commissioned until the first of the ensuing August. He entered upon the discharge of the duties on August 8, serving until he was transferred to the Treasury Department in October, 1816. His administration of the Treasury Department was able throughout, his elaborate report on the currency submitted February 12, 1819, being regarded as one of the ablest state papers issuing from the Treasury Department. In 1824 serious charges were made against him of illegal acts as secretary, but he was triumphantly acquitted by the congressional committee of investigation.

In 1824 he was nominated for the presidency by the Republican caucus. Only sixty-eight of the Republican members of Congress took part in the caucus and his nomination by this fraction of the Republican congressional representation created great dissatisfaction in the party and resulted in breaking up that method of naming presidential candidates. John Quincy Adams, Secretary of State; Henry Clay, Speaker of the House of Representatives, and General Jackson, then a senator from Tennessee, were also candidates before the people. The electoral college failed to make a selection and the election was thrown into the House of Representatives, when Mr. Adams was chosen.

President Adams requested Mr. Crawford to remain in his cabinet as Secretary of the Treasury, but the health of Mr. Crawford was very precarious at the time and he declined the offer. During his campaign for the Senate Mr. Crawford fought two duels, in one of which he killed his opponent, Judge William Van Allen, and in the other was himself seriously wounded by General John Clark.

RICHARD RUSH

RICHARD RUSH—Attorney General from February 11, 1814, to October 30, 1817; Secretary of the Treasury from August 1, 1825, to March 3, 1829. Born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, August 29, 1780. Son of Benjamin and Julia (Stockton) Rush. Educated at Princeton College. Married Catherine Eliza Murray. Died in Philadelphia, July 30, 1859.

1811—Attorney General of Pennsylvania.
1811—Comptroller of the United States Treasury.
1814—Attorney General of the United States.
1817—Minister to England.
1825—Secretary of the Treasury.
1847—Minister to France.

Richard Rush was of distinguished ancestry, both his father and his maternal grandfather being signers of the Declaration of Independence. His father was the famous physician and surgeon, Benjamin Rush. At the early age of fourteen Richard was sent to Princeton College and soon became noted for his fondness for debate, especially upon political topics. He graduated in 1797, the youngest member of his class. Leaving college he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1800.

His first public speech was on an occasion when the people had met to discuss the recent attack on the American frigate *Chesapeake* by the British ship *Leopard*. This speech won him something more than a local fame both as an orator and as a patriot. He rose rapidly in his profession and in 1808 his successful defense of Colonel William Duane, editor of the *Aurora*, a Philadelphia paper, who had been indicted for libel on Governor McKean, of Pennsylvania, gave him a state reputation as a lawyer.

In 1811 he was appointed attorney general of Pennsylvania and in the same year President Madison made him comptroller of the treasury. Although this was a subordinate position President Madison, during the whole time of the war with Great Britain, regarded Mr. Rush as one of his confidential advisers. At the close of the war President Madison offered Mr. Rush his choice between the attorney generalship and the Treasury Department. He chose the former. In this office he succeeded the great William Pinkney, the head of the American bar, and his abilities were such that he was enabled to maintain the high standard set by Mr. Pinkney.

In October, 1817, he resigned the office of Attorney General to accept the mission to England, where he was to succeed John Quincy Adams, who had been made Secretary of State. He remained in England for seven years as the representative of the United States, serving with such dignity and courtesy that he won the favor of the British government and people. He negotiated a number of important treaties.

On assuming the duties of President, March 4, 1825, John Quincy Adams nominated Mr. Rush as Secretary of the Treasury. He was confirmed and commissioned on March 7, but did not assume his duties until the following August 1, being absent in England. His administration of the Treasury Department was remarkably successful, he being able to turn the department over to his successor with a large surplus in the treasury and with nearly the whole of the public debt paid.

In 1828 he was a candidate for Vice President on the ticket with John Quincy Adams, but was defeated. After leaving the Treasury Department he was sent to England and Holland by the cities of Georgetown and Alexandria to negotiate a large loan for the cities, and in this he met with prompt success.

In 1836 President Jackson sent him to England as commissioner to secure for the United States the legacy left the government by James Smithson. He was successful in this undertaking, bringing to the

United States the sum afterward used to establish the Smithsonian Institution at Washington. In 1847 he was appointed by President Polk minister to France, a position he held until in 1851, when he resigned and returned to the United States.

SAMUEL DELUCENNA INGHAM

SAMUEL D. INGHAM—Secretary of the Treasury from March 6, 1829, to June 20, 1831. Born near New Hope, Bucks county, Pennsylvania, September 16, 1779. Son of Dr. Jonathan and Ann (Walling) Ingham. Educated in the common schools. Married Rebecca Dood; Deborah Kay. Died in Trenton, New Jersey, June 5, 1860.

1813—Member national House of Representatives.
1822—Member national House of Representatives.
1829—Secretary of the Treasury.

Samuel D. Ingham came of a sturdy Bucks county Quaker family, a thrifty, industrious race that had been settled in that county for four generations. His father was a physician, farmer and merchant and was also a devotee of classical learning, but did not give his son a collegiate course. After getting a fair education in the neighborhood schools Samuel was apprenticed to a papermaker and some time later set up a paper mill on his father's farm. In this enterprise he was successful.

Taking an active interest in politics as a Jeffersonian Republican, he held several offices, such as justice of the peace, member of the state legislature and secretary of the commonwealth, and in 1813 was sent to Congress where he served until July 6, 1818, when he resigned. He was again sent to Congress in 1822 and served until he was appointed Secretary of the Treasury by President Jackson. In Congress he was classed as a Republican and counted among the friends of Mr. Calhoun. He opposed the caucus method of selecting presidential candidates and refused to attend the caucus which placed William H. Crawford in nomination as the candidate of the Republicans in 1824. He was always regarded as a "working" member and served on many important committees. His name has been connected with the "Bargain and Sale" charge against Henry Clay and President Adams.

When President Jackson was forming his cabinet Pennsylvania presented two men, Henry Baldwin and Mr. Ingham. General Jackson, on account of personal reasons, preferred the former, but the Calhoun interests pushed Mr. Ingham and he was finally chosen. He became involved in the cabinet troubles over the wife of Secretary of War Eaton, and resigned with the other members of the cabinet in 1831. At the time of surrendering his office a newspaper publication caused Secretary Eaton to send Mr. Ingham a challenge, but Mr. Ingham treated the challenge with such contempt that Mr. Eaton sought to assault him personally, but in this was prevented.

As Secretary of the Treasury Mr. Ingham had little opportunity to display any administrative or financial ability.

LOUIS MCLANE

LOUIS MCLANE—Secretary of the Treasury from August 8, 1831, to May 29, 1833; Secretary of State from May 29, 1833, to June 30, 1834. Born in Smyrna, Delaware, May 28, 1786. Son of Allan McLane. Educated at College of New Jersey. Married, in 1812, Miss Catharine Mary Milligan. Died in Baltimore, Maryland, October 7, 1857.

1817—Member national House of Representatives.
1827—United States Senator.
1829—Minister to England.
1831—Secretary of the Treasury.
1833—Secretary of State.
1845—Minister to England.
1850—Member Delaware Constitutional Convention.

In his youth Louis McLane, the future cabinet minister, was ambitious for service in the navy and at the age of twelve years received a commission as midshipman. He was ordered to the frigate *Philadelphia* and sailed on a twelve months' cruise. In 1801 he resigned from the navy at the earnest solicitation of his mother and devoted himself to securing an education, later attending college at Newark, New Jersey. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1807. He rapidly rose to eminence as a sound lawyer.

In politics he was a Federalist, but during the War of 1812 sustained the administration of President Madison and acted as a volunteer in a company commanded by Ceasar A. Rodney. In 1817 he took his seat in the national House of Representatives, serving until 1827. In the House he was noted for his strength in debate, especially upon all constitutional and economic questions. He favored internal improvements and voted against the restricting clause in the bill admitting Missouri into the Union. He was a member of the committee appointed to investigate the affairs of the United States Bank and joined in the report sustaining the bank. During the most of his service in the House he was chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means. In 1829 he was sent to the Senate and as a member of that body supported the protection theory of a tariff.

When General Jackson began forming his cabinet Senator McLane was strongly urged for the Treasury Department, Mr. Van Buren writing a letter in his favor, and his name was also considered in connection with the office of Attorney General. He was greatly disappointed at not being given the Treasury Department, but accepted the mission to England. He made a very favorable impression in England and as a representative of the country displayed diplomatic talents.

In 1831, when President Jackson was reorganizing his cabinet to make a place for Mr. Van Buren, who had resigned the State Department in order to give the President an opportunity to reorganize his cabinet, Mr. McLane was recalled from England to take the head of the

Department of the Treasury that had been refused him in the original formation of the cabinet. Mr. McLane entered the cabinet just as President Jackson was formulating his fight against the United States Bank. The new Secretary of the Treasury was a Federalist and a strong supporter of the bank. The President knew this, but he had an admiration for the plain, straight-forward dealing of Mr. McLane.

In his first report as Secretary of the Treasury Mr. McLane took strong grounds in favor of a recharter. The enemies of the bank becoming alarmed at the growing influence of Mr. McLane with the President endeavored to have him removed, but the President would not consent. The President regarded Mr. McLane as too strong a man to lose from his cabinet, but, to relieve the fears of the anti-bank men, transferred him to the State Department, sending Secretary Livingston to France.

At the cabinet meeting to discuss the removal of deposits Mr. McLane strongly opposed the removal, submitting an elaborate paper in which he made a suggestion whereby the President would escape the charge of ignoring Congress. He proposed the President should assert executive control over the deposits, order their removal on January 1, 1834, and make an announcement to that effect in his message to Congress in December, 1833.

As Secretary of State Mr. McLane followed a bold course in dealing with Great Britain in the controversy over trade with the West Indies and succeeded in perfecting a satisfactory arrangement. He ardently and warmly sustained the President in his fight against nullification. The friction over the removal of the deposits continuing, Secretary McLane tendered his resignation and retired from the cabinet June 30, 1834.

From 1837 to 1847 Mr. McLane was president of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. In 1845 he was again sent to England as minister, but remained only one year.

WILLIAM JONES DUANE

WILLIAM J. DUANE—Secretary of the Treasury from June 1, 1833, to September 23, 1833. Born in Clanrood, Ireland, in 1780. Son of William and Catharine (Corcoran) Duane. Married Deborah Bache. Died in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, September 27, 1865.

1833—Secretary of the Treasury.

The only public office held by William J. Duane was that of Secretary of the Treasury, which he held for a few days more than three months. His father was a printer and for a long time editor of the *Aurora*, a weekly paper printed in Philadelphia, chiefly known for its violent opposition to Presidents Washington and John Adams, and Alexander Hamilton and Albert Gallatin. He at first desired that his son should follow in his footsteps as an editor, but the young man preferred the law.

He was admitted to the bar in 1815 and soon became a noted attorney. He was for several years the attorney for Stephen Girard, the great philanthropist, and drafted the will of that eminent financier. When President Jackson was looking for someone who would, as Secretary of the Treasury, withdraw the government deposits from the United States Bank, the choice fell on Mr. Duane. It was said his name was suggested by Mr. McLane, who was about to be transferred to the Department of State, and who had, himself, while Secretary of the Treasury declined to issue the order. The paper published by the elder Duane had long been a bitter opponent of the bank and the younger Duane had also been classed as among those in opposition.

Secretary McLane was transferred from the Treasury to the State Department and the Treasury Department was offered to Mr. Duane. He took the matter under advisement for more than a month and finally accepted. When it was suggested that he issue the removal order he declined to do so. Persisting in his refusal the President peremptorily dismissed him from the cabinet, he being the second cabinet officer thus dismissed.

LEVI WOODBURY

LEVI WOODBURY—Secretary of the Navy from May 23, 1831, to June 30, 1834; Secretary of the Treasury from July 1, 1834, to March 3, 1841. Born in Francestown, New Hampshire, December 22, 1789. Son of Peter and Mary (Woodbury) Woodbury. Educated at Dartmouth College. Married, in 1819, Miss Elizabeth W. Clapp. Died at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, September 4, 1851.

1816—Judge of the Superior Court of New Hampshire.
1823—Governor of New Hampshire.
1825—Speaker of New Hampshire House of Representatives.
1825—United States Senator.
1831—Declined seat in State Senate.
1831—Secretary of the Navy.
1834—Secretary of the Treasury.
1841—United States Senator.
1845—Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.

For a quarter of a century Levi Woodbury was a prominent figure in the political history of the United States. His American ancestors were among the first to settle in New England. The family was descended from John Woodbury, who settled at Cape Ann in 1623. The father of Levi was a successful farmer and merchant and for thirty years an active magistrate.

Levi was the second of ten children born to his parents. After receiving a preparatory education he matriculated at Dartmouth College, graduating in 1809. He almost immediately began the study of law and was admitted to the bar in 1812, beginning his professional life in

his native town. In 1817 he was elected clerk of the New Hampshire Senate, and at the close of that year was appointed associate justice of the New Hampshire Supreme Court. In 1819 he removed to Portsmouth and made that his future home. He took an active interest in politics and in 1822 was elected governor of the state and was reelected the next year. He was again a candidate in 1824, but was defeated. In 1825 he was elected a member of the state legislature and on the first day of the session was chosen speaker and at the close of the session was elected to the United States Senate.

He became an active adherent of General Jackson and was recognized as one of the most vigorous of the Jackson wing of the Republican party. Soon after his inauguration President Jackson tendered to Mr. Woodbury the mission to Spain, but the offer was declined. After the close of his term in the Senate Mr. Woodbury returned to New Hampshire.

When President Jackson reorganized his cabinet in 1831 he selected Mr. Woodbury for the head of the Navy Department. He was appointed during the recess of the Senate. Secretary Woodbury introduced order and system into the department, making many important changes in the methods of transacting business and in the management of the navy itself. He revised the navy regulations and materially curtailed the power of subordinate officers to punish seamen. He made an elaborate and valuable report on the live-oak supply of the country, that timber being used exclusively in the construction of naval vessels. He sent a frigate to punish the Malay pirates and a fleet to Charleston to aid in enforcing the collection of the revenue at the time of the threatened nullification by South Carolina. His administration of the Navy Department was vigorous and successful.

In June, 1834, when the Senate rejected the nomination of Roger B. Taney as Secretary of the Treasury, President Jackson at once substituted the name of Secretary Woodbury for the vacant place. His nomination was confirmed the same day. He entered upon the discharge of his duties on the first of July. He served through the remainder of the administration of President Jackson and through that of President Van Buren. It was under his administration of the Treasury Department the last of the public debt was discharged. The government deposits had been removed from the United States Bank before he became Secretary of the Treasury and had been distributed among the various state banks.

It was while Mr. Woodbury was Secretary of the Treasury during the administration of President Van Buren that the great Swartwout defalcation was uncovered. Swartwout had been appointed collector of the port of New York early in President Jackson's first administration. It developed later that he almost immediately entered upon a series of embezzlements. Secretary Woodbury was not satisfied with his reports and sent a special agent to investigate. The embezzlements

reached a million and a half dollars. It was the first of the kind in the history of the department and caused a great political sensation.

Secretary Woodbury believed that everything possible should be done to encourage the purchase of public lands. He repeatedly urged the banks having government deposits to loan freely and liberally to prospective buyers of public lands. An era of wild speculation followed. The receipts from the sale of public lands jumped from two million six hundred and twenty-three thousand dollars in 1832 to twenty-four million eight hundred and seventy-seven thousand dollars in 1836.

He strongly opposed the distribution of the treasury surplus among the states, holding that such a course would take from circulation for many weeks the millions that were needed to transact the business of the country, and it would take them from where they were needed and send them to points where not needed.

When the great tide of irredeemable paper money began to flood the country Secretary Woodbury urged the President to issue what is known in history as the "Specie Circular," a circular directing all receivers of public monies to refuse to receive anything but specie in payment for public lands. He also strongly advocated the sub-treasury scheme.

In 1840 he was again elected to the United States Senate. He resigned his seat in the cabinet on March 3, 1841, and on the next day took his seat in the Senate. He favored the annexation of Texas and supported President Tyler's vetoes of the bank charter. When Mr. Polk became President in 1845 he tendered to Senator Woodbury the British mission, but it was declined, as had been that to Spain tendered by President Jackson.

On the death of Associate Justice Story of the Supreme Court of the United States in 1845, Senator Woodbury was appointed to the vacancy. As a member of that high judicial tribunal his opinions were regarded as being exceptionally able.

THOMAS EWING

THOMAS EWING—Secretary of the Treasury from March 6, 1841, to September 11, 1841; Secretary of the Interior from March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850. Born near West Liberty, Ohio county, Virginia, December 28, 1789. Son of George and Rachel (Harris) Ewing. Educated at Athens (Ohio) Academy. Married, in 1820, Maria Willis Boyle. Died at Lancaster, Ohio, October 26, 1871.

1831—United States Senator.
1841—Secretary of the Treasury.
1849—Secretary of the Interior.
1850—United States Senator.

George Ewing, the father of Thomas, was an officer in the Continental Army during the RevolutionaryWar. In 1792 he took his family to Ohio, locating in Athens county. The early education of Thomas was obtained under many difficulties, but he was able to spend a few months in attending the academy at Athens, which gave him the degree of A.B. in 1815, the first granted by any educational institution in Ohio. Leaving the academy Mr. Ewing studied law at Lancaster, Ohio, and was admitted to the bar in 1816. He devoted himself wholly to the practice of his profession until 1831. By that time he was regarded as one of the ablest lawyers of the state and had made a reputation in other states.

He was a Whig in politics and in 1831 was sent by that party to the United States Senate, where he soon established a reputation as a debater. He exercised great influence in the Senate and was one of the strongest opponents of the course of President Jackson in removing the government deposits from the United States Bank. Among the various measures he introduced and advocated was one reducing the rates of postage, in which he was successful. He served in the Senate until 1837. Being defeated for re-election he returned to the practice of his profession at Lancaster.

In 1841 President Harrison appointed him Secretary of the Treasury. He served until the dissolution of the cabinet under President Tyler in the following September. He was at the head of the Treasury Department so short a time that he accomplished but little. He favored the recharter of the Bank of the United States, and when President Tyler vetoed the bill for the recharter Mr. Ewing, with all the other members of the cabinet except Mr. Webster, resigned.

In 1849 President Taylor appointed him Secretary of the Interior, a department that had been created during the last days of the administration of President Polk. He served a little more than one year, when he resigned, having again been elected to the United States Senate. Mr. Ewing was in the cabinet of two Presidents at the time of their death. As Secretary of the Interior Mr. Ewing organized that department, a work of great labor, as bureaus and divisions from two or three of the other departments had been transferred to this new department.

During his second service in the Senate he opposed the Fugitive Slave Law and the compromise measures of Senator Clay. He advocated the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia and was one of the first to advocate a transcontinental railway. In 1861 he was a member of the Peace Convention. On February 22, 1868, President Johnson attempted to summarily remove Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, by nominating Mr. Ewing to that position, but the Senate refused to confirm him.

At the time of his death he was regarded as the most eminent lawyer in Ohio and one of the most eminent in the country.

WALTER FORWARD

WALTER FORWARD—Secretary of the Treasury from September 14, 1841, to February 28, 1843. Born in Hartford county, Connecticut, April 17, 1786. Son of Samuel and Susannah (Holcombe) Forward. Educated in the common schools. Married Henrietta Barclay. Died at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, November 24, 1852.

1822—Member national House of Representatives.
1837—Member Pennsylvania Constitutional Convention.
1841—First Comptroller of the Treasury.
1841—Secretary of the Treasury.
1849—Charge d'Affairs at Copenhagen.

When President Tyler reorganized his cabinet in 1841 he chose for the head of the Treasury Department Walter Forward, at that time serving as first comptroller of the treasury under appointment by President William Henry Harrison. Mr. Forward was born in Connecticut, but removed with his parents first to Ohio and then to Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. At Pittsburgh Walter studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1806, at the age of twenty years.

He soon began to take an active interest in political matters, and for some time was editor of a Democratic paper in Pittsburgh. In 1822 he was elected as a Democrat to fill a vacancy in the national House of Representatives, and was re-elected for a full term, serving until March 3, 1825. In 1824, and again in 1828, he supported John Quincy Adams for President and became one of the leading Whigs of his section of the state.

President William Henry Harrison in 1841 gave him the important position of comptroller of the treasury and from that position he was elevated to the head of the department by President Tyler. As Secretary of the Treasury Mr. Forward advocated the sub-treasury scheme of the Tyler administration, but opposed the annexation of Texas, resigning from the cabinet on that account. In 1849 President Taylor appointed Mr. Forward charge d'affairs at Copenhagen. He remained in that office until after Mr. Fillmore became President, when he resigned and returned to Pittsburgh.

GEORGE M. BIBB

GEORGE M. BIBB—Secretary of the Treasury from July 4, 1844, to March 7, 1845. Born in Prince Edward county, Virginia, October 30, 1876. Educated at William and Mary College. Died in Georgetown, District of Columbia, April 14, 1859.

1808—Judge of the Kentucky Court of Appeals.
1809—Chief Justice of the Kentucky Court of Appeals.
1811—United States Senator.
1814—Chief Justice of the Kentucky Court of Appeals.
1829—United States Senator.
1836—Chancellor of the Louisville (Kentucky) Chancery Court.
1844—Secretary of the Treasury.

After completing his college course, which he did at the age of twenty, Mr. Bibb removed to Kentucky, locating at Lexington. He soon became prominent in his profession of the law and in politics. He served several terms in the legislature of Kentucky and in 1808 was made one of the judges of the State Court of Appeals, and a year later was made chief justice of the court, serving until 1811, when he was elected to the United States Senate. Mr. Bibb did not serve out a full term as senator, but resigned in August, 1814, to again become chief justice of the state. He served as chief justice for fifteen years. He was a second time elected to the United States Senate, serving a full term. His services in the cabinet lasted but a few months of the administration of President Tyler.

ROBERT JOHN WALKER

ROBERT JOHN WALKER—Secretary of the Treasury from March 8, 1845, to March 5, 1849. Born in Northumberland, Pennsylvania, July 19, 1801. Son of Jonathan H. and Lucy (Duncan) Walker. Educated at the University of Pennsylvania. Married, in 1825, Mary B. Bache. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, November 11, 1869.

1835—United States Senator.
1845—Secretary of the Treasury.
1857—Governor of Kansas Territory.
1863—Confidential Commissioner to Europe.

The father of Robert J. Walker was a distinguished soldier of the Revolutionary War and an eminent jurist. Robert J. entered the University of Pennsylvania and was graduated in 1819. Studying law he was admitted to the bar in 1821, beginning practice in Pittsburgh. While a student in college Mr. Walker took an active interest in political affairs, and when but twenty-two years of age was chosen chairman of the Democratic campaign committee of Allegheny county, where he displayed skill as a party organizer and director. He was one of the earliest supporters of General Jackson for the presidency and effectively aided in bringing about the action of the Harrisburg Convention which nominated the general for President in 1824.

In the spring of 1826 Mr. Walker removed to Mississippi and devoted himself to the practice of his profession at Madisonville in that state. When the nullification agitation broke out he placed himself among the opponents of the movement in Mississippi and was mainly instrumental in securing the Mississippi Legislature to denounce, by resolution, the doctrine of nullification as being treasonable. In 1835 he was elected to the United States Senate, serving for ten years, when he resigned to accept a seat in the cabinet of President Polk as Secretary of the Treasury.

In the Senate he advocated a liberal land policy and introduced the first homestead law; he opposed the protection theory of a tariff, championed a system of internal improvements, advocated the abolition of

the slave trade and supported the administrations of Presidents Jackson and Van Buren. He advocated a gradual emancipation of slaves and in 1836 gave freedom to his own slaves.

In the Democratic National Convention of 1844 Mr. Walker appeared as the leader of those opposed to the nomination of Mr. Van Buren and in a speech of great power fairly captured the convention which later nominated James K. Polk, of Tennessee. When Mr. Polk became President on March 4, 1845, he sent the name of Senator Walker to the Senate for Secretary of the Treasury. It was at once confirmed.

As head of the Treasury Department Secretary Walker displayed fine administrative ability, remodeling the department so as to make business methods effective. He established the warehouse system and induced Congress to create the Department of the Interior, to which was transferred several of the bureaus of the Treasury Department. He found the credit of the government at a very low ebb and when it became necessary to finance the Mexican War met with almost insurmountable obstacles, the financial centers of New York and Philadelphia refusing to accept the government bonds except at a large discount. Through the co-operation of William Corcoran, a young banker of Washington city, Secretary Walker was finally able to dispose of twenty millions of bonds at a good figure and to re-establish the credit of the government.

From March, 1849, when he left the Treasury Department, until 1857, Mr. Walker held no public office, devoting himself to the practice of law, being regarded as one of the ablest lawyers of the country. During that period he wrote much for the public press, in which he excelled. In fact, from his first introduction into political activity he had been a frequent contributor to the leading Democratic papers. In 1857 he was appointed governor of Kansas territory by President Buchanan. He revolted at the efforts to introduce slavery into the territory and resigned after a service of about one year.

When the Civil War came Mr. Walker declared himself for the Union, and in 1863 President Lincoln sent him on a confidential mission to Europe with the object of presenting the cause of the Union to the people of the Old World, spreading before them proofs of our ability to sustain the Union and to inform them as to the inexhaustible resources of the North. This he did through a series of powerfully written articles published in the London *Times*, and in other papers, and by a number of public addresses. He succeeded in placing two hundred and fifty million dollars of the bonds of the government in Europe and in defeating a proposed loan of seventy-five million dollars to the Confederate government.

Returning to this country he devoted himself to his profession and to writing for the press on various topics, mostly economic. He urged the building of a railroad to the Pacific and the purchase of Alaska and the Danish West Indies.

WILLIAM MORRIS MEREDITH

WILLIAM M. MEREDITH—Secretary of the Treasury from March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850. Born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, June 8, 1799. Son of William and Gertrude G. (Ogden) Meredith. Educated at the University of Pennsylvania. Married Catherine Kepple. Died in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, August 17, 1873.

1824—Member Pennsylvania Legislature.
1837—Member Pennsylvania Constitutional Convention.
1849—Secretary of the Treasury.
1861—Attorney General of Pennsylvania.
1870—United States Counsel at Geneva Convention.
1872—President Pennsylvania Constitutional Convention.

William Morris Meredith was descended from a distinguished family. His father was an eminent jurist, who took great pains with the education of his son, who proved to be very precocious. It is said that William Morris graduated at the head of his class from the University of Pennsylvania when he was but thirteen years of age. Leaving the university he studied law under his father's direction, and being admitted to the bar met with but little success as a practitioner for several years until he became connected with the famous Girard will case. His success in that case brought him at once into prominent notice and from 1840 until 1873 few important cases were before the Pennsylvania courts without his appearing on one side or the other.

He did not remain long in the cabinet. Soon after the death of President Taylor his successor, President Fillmore, entirely reorganized his cabinet, Secretary Meredith retiring with the others. He was appointed by President Grant as counsel for the government before the Geneva Arbitration Tribunal and met with great success.

THOMAS CORWIN

THOMAS CORWIN—Secretary of the Treasury from July 23, 1850, to March 7, 1853. Born in Bourbon county, Kentucky, July 29, 1794. Son of Matthias and Patience (Hallock) Corwin. Educated in country schools. Married, November 13, 1823, Miss Sarah Ross. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, December 18, 1865.

1822—Member Ohio Legislature.
1830—Member national House of Representatives.
1840—Governor of Ohio.
1845—United States Senator.
1850—Secretary of the Treasury.
1859—Member national House of Representatives.
1861—Minister to Mexico.

Mr. Corwin was long regarded as the greatest of American campaign orators. As a boy he picked up a little education in the country

schools, attending at odd times. An accident by which he received a broken leg gave him an opportunity for reading and study while recovering. His ambition was stirred and he urged his father, then living on a small farm in Ohio, to permit him to get an education. The father refusing, the young lad deliberately broke his leg again that he might have another opportunity for reading.

His father yielded at last and the son began the study of the law, of which science he soon became a master. He was admitted to the bar in 1818. Taking an active interest in politics and having developed strong powers as a campaign orator he was sent to the State Legislature, serving for seven years. In 1830 he was elected a representative in Congress and at once became an acknowledged leader of the Whigs. He remained in Congress until 1840, when he resigned to become governor of Ohio. In 1845 he was sent to the United States Senate. As a member of the Senate he vigorously opposed the war with Mexico.

While Mr. Corwin was Secretary of the Treasury he was the subject of a scandal which created a great deal of talk in political circles for a time, but on an investigation by a congressional committee he was declared wholly guiltless of any wrongdoing. A Dr. Gardiner had a claim against Mexico that had been under consideration for many years. Mr. Corwin was employed as his attorney. Believing the claim to be a just one Mr. Corwin, in connection with his brother, purchased an interest in it, paying twenty-two thousand dollars for the same. When the position of Secretary of the Treasury was tendered him Mr. Corwin sold his interest to a third party. The claim, on a full investigation, turned out to be a fraudulent one. It was charged that the sale of his interest was a blind upon the part of Mr. Corwin, the inference being that Mr. Corwin was endeavoring to procure from the treasury the payment of a fraudulent claim. A committee of both houses of Congress unanimously pronounced that Mr. Corwin had no knowledge, or even a suspicion, that the claim was fraudulent.

Mr. Corwin served as minister to Mexico three years and then resigned. Returning to the United States he located in Washington in the practice of his profession.

JAMES GUTHRIE

JAMES GUTHRIE—Secretary of the Treasury from March 8, 1853, to March 6, 1857. Born in Madison county, Kentucky, December 5, 1792. Educated at Bardstown (Kentucky) Academy. Died in Louisville, Kentucky, March 18, 1869.

18 —Member Kentucky Legislature for nine years.
18 —Member Kentucky Senate for six years.
1849—President Kentucky Constitutional Convention.
1853—Secretary of the Treasury.
1865—United States Senator.

James Guthrie was among the most successful of the secretaries of the Treasury Department. After receiving an academic education he began his business career by taking produce to New Orleans by means of flat boats. Having an ambition for something better than this career he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1820, making his home in Louisville. While not ranking as one of the great lawyers of the Kentucky bar he succeeded in securing a large and profitable practice. Not long after beginning his practice he had a personal encounter with an attorney by the name of Hays in which Mr. Guthrie received a pistol shot in the groin, the wound being severe enough to confine him to his bed for some years and in laming him for life.

In the heated political contests which agitated the country Mr. Guthrie was an ardent Democratic adherent of General Jackson, and for nine consecutive years was elected a member of the Kentucky House of Representatives and for six successive years served in the State Senate. He engaged in many large business enterprises, and was the founder of the railroad system of Kentucky and president of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad Company. He secured a charter for the University of Louisville and was always one of its strongest supporters.

As Secretary of the Treasury he reformed the administration of the department, which he found in great confusion owing to the looseness of the administration of his predecessor. He abolished the system of secret inspectors of customs and reformed the system of accounting. When he entered upon the discharge of the duties of the office the unsettled accounts and balances had reached the enormous amount of one hundred and thirty-two million dollars. Notwithstanding large outlays for increasing the naval force and the payment to Mexico of ten million dollars, Secretary Guthrie, by his energy and the economies he introduced, was able in four years to reduce the amount of the unsettled accounts to twenty-four million dollars. Before his time settlements were made quarterly. He required such settlements to be made monthly.

HOWELL COBB

HOWELL COBB—Secretary of the Treasury from March 7, 1857, to December 8, 1860. Born at Cherry Hill, Georgia, September 7, 1815. Educated at Franklin College. Died in New York, October 9, 1868.

1836—Presidential Elector on Democratic ticket.
1837—Solicitor General Western District, Georgia.
1845—Member national House of Representatives.
1847—Member national House of Representatives.
1849—Speaker House of Representatives.
1851—Governor of Georgia.
1855—Member national House of Representatives.
1857—Secretary of the Treasury.
1861—Chairman Convention to form Confederate Government.
1862—Brigadier General Confederate Army.
1863—Major General Confederate Army.

Howell Cobb, who served as Secretary of the Treasury under President Buchanan, possessed in a marked degree that fiery and impassioned eloquence of which the South was so prodigal. Graduating from Franklin College at the age of nineteen he studied law, and after two years of study was admitted to the bar and began the practice of the profession at Atlanta. His family was among the most distinguished in that part of Georgia, and this, aided by his talents, soon brought him a remunerative practice. He early entered politics and in 1836 was a candidate for elector on the Van Buren ticket. Speaking in almost every part of the state he won fame as a speaker and was that early classed among the most eloquent orators of Georgia.

In 1845 he was elected a representative in Congress and was re-elected in 1847 and 1849. This latter became a noted session for the long contest which was waged over the election of speaker. The slavery question was becoming to be one of the great issues and the discussion made the first session of the thirty-first Congress noted. It began on December 3, 1849, and continued in session until September 30, 1850, a period of more than ten months. It was mainly devoted to speech-making. The first month was wholly taken up in the effort to elect a speaker.

The Democrats had a majority in the House, but a number of them were rated as "Free-Soil Democrats," and they would not vote for Mr. Cobb for speaker because of his radical views in favor of slavery. The matter was complicated by the deflection of some of the Whigs, who refused to vote for Robert C. Winthrop, the Whig candidate, because he would not commit himself against the Wilmot Proviso.

Finally, after fruitless balloting for about a month, the House adopted a resolution providing for the election of a speaker by plurality vote. Under the operation of this resolution Mr. Cobb was elected. It was a stormy session throughout and required all the tact and firmness of the Speaker to keep the members from indulging in hostile conflicts on the floor. Speaker Cobb believed in and advocated the right of the owners of slaves to take their chattel property into any of the territories, but he was opposed to disunion at that time.

This was demonstrated by his taking the race for governor of the state as against Charles J. McDonald, the leader of the Calhounites in Georgia. He made an active campaign and was elected by a substantial majority. When he again entered Congress he took early and strong ground against the extremists of his section. He entered the Buchanan cabinet as an advocate of the Union, yet as the controversy deepened he yielded to the exactions of the South, and when the war came he was one of the foremost and most resolute chiefs of secession. Entering the Confederate Army he was made general of brigade and later promoted to major general. For his actions while a member of the Buchanan cabinet he was severely criticized, but no charge of dishonesty was ever made against him. The adverse criticisms going to his political actions and not to the administration of the department.

PHILIP FRANCIS THOMAS

PHILIP F. THOMAS—Secretary of the Treasury from December 13, 1860, to January 14, 1861. Born at Easton, Talbot county, Maryland, September 12, 1810. Educated at Dickinson College. Died at Easton, Maryland, October 2, 1890.

1836—Member Maryland Constitutional Convention.
1838—Member Maryland Legislature.
1839—Member national House of Representatives.
1843—Member Maryland Legislature.
1845—Member Maryland Legislature.
1848—Governor of Maryland.
1851—Comptroller United States Treasury.
1853—Collector of the Port of Baltimore.
1860—Commissioner of Patents.
1860—Secretary of the Treasury.
1866—Member Maryland Legislature.
1875—Member national House of Representatives.
1878—Member Maryland Legislature.

Mr. Thomas served but one month in the cabinet. He was made Secretary of the Treasury during the last months of the administration of President Buchanan. The finances of the government were in a bad condition and his appointment as head of the Treasury Department was unsatisfactory to the monied interests and his resignation was soon asked for. His sympathies during the Civil War were with the South and this prevented him from being admitted to the United States Senate in 1867, but a few years later he was given a seat in the House.

JOHN ADAMS DIX

JOHN A. DIX—Secretary of the Treasury from January 15, 1861, to March 6, 1861. Born at Boscawen, New Hampshire, July 24, 1796. Son of Timothy and Abigail (Wilkins) Dix. Educated at College of Montreal. Married, May 29, 1826, Miss Catharine Morgan. Died in New York city, April 21, 1879.

1831—Adjutant General of New York.
1833—Secretary of State of New York.
1842—Member New York Legislature.
1845—United States Senator.
1860—Postmaster of New York city.
1861—Secretary of the Treasury.
1866—Minister to France.
1873—Governor of New York.

General Dix was not long enough in the cabinet to work out any reforms in his department or to advocate any financial measure. When President Buchanan reorganized his cabinet just before the close of his administration, John A. Dix was called to the head of the Treasury

Department. Mr. Dix had long been known as one of the leading business men of New York and the financial men of the country had confidence in his ability and integrity and he was called to the cabinet to save the government from practical bankruptcy. He almost immediately brought forward a proposition to have the various states guarantee the bonds of the government to the extent of the surplus revenue distributed to them in 1837. His administration, however, is better known from the order telegraphed to a lieutenant in the revenue service: "If any man attempts to haul down the American flag, shoot him on the spot."

At the age of fifteen he entered the army during the war with Great Britain and served with distinction. He remained in the army until 1828, when he was sent on a special and confidential mission to Copenhagen. While in the army Mr. Dix studied law and was admitted to the bar in Washington in 1826.

Resigning from the army after his European tour he located at Cooperstown, New York, to practice his profession, but in 1831 removed to Albany, having been appointed attorney general of the state. He was later made secretary of the commonwealth. About that time he became editor of the *Northern Light*, published at Albany, and made it one of the influential papers of the state. He was opposed to the extension of slave territory and in 1848 was the candidate of the Free Soilers for governor, but was defeated. At that time he was a member of the United States Senate, having been elected to that body as a Democrat, in 1845, to fill a vacancy caused by the resignation of Silas Wright, Jr.

He was postmaster of the city of New York when called to the Treasury Department by President Buchanan. Together with Secretaries Holt and Black and Attorney General Stanton, of the cabinet, Secretary Dix urged prompt action upon the part of the President to strengthen the forts in the South. When the war between the states came he rendered efficient aid to the administration of President Lincoln and organized and sent to the front seventeen regiments of volunteers. He was commissioned a major general and served throughout the war with great distinction.

SALMON PORTLAND CHASE

SALMON P. CHASE—Secretary of the Treasury from March 7, 1861, to June 30, 1864. Born at Cornish, New Hampshire, January 13, 1808. Son of Ithamar and Jane (Ralston) Chase. Educated at Dartmouth College. Married, March 4, 1834, Miss Catharine Jane Garniss; September 26, 1839, Miss Ann Eliza Smith; November 6, 1846, Sarah Bella Dunlop Ludlow. Died in New York city, May 7, 1873.

1841—United States Senator.
1856—Governor of Ohio.
1861—Secretary of the Treasury.
1864—Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

United States senator, governor, cabinet minister, chief justice, such was the official life of Salmon P. Chase, extending over a period of a third of a century; a life of distinguished services to his country in each capacity.

The Chase family was one of the purest American stock. Two centuries before Salmon P. Chase became Secretary of the Treasury his first American ancestor came to this country from England. Ithamar, the father of Salmon P., was a prominent man in his locality, serving for some time as a member of the Governor's Council. One of his uncles served as United States senator for twelve years and another was a distinguished bishop of the Episcopal Church.

When Salmon was nine years old his father removed to Keene, New Hampshire, dying soon afterward. The early education of Salmon was obtained first at a "dame school," then at a district school in Keene, and at Winsor, Vermont. In 1820 he became a member of the family of his uncle, Bishop Philander Chase, in Ohio. He spent the next two years in alternate work on the farm and in attending the school of his uncle at Worthington, near Columbus. He then spent one year at the Cincinnati College. Returning to New Hampshire in 1824 he entered Dartmouth College. He was not a diligent student and failed to take a high rank in his classes. Leaving college he went to Washington city and opened a school which he taught for three years. In 1827 he began the study of law in the office of the distinguished William Wirt, then Attorney General of the United States. He was admitted to the bar December 14, 1829.

In 1830 Mr. Chase left Washington to make his future home in Ohio, selecting Cincinnati as the place to practice his profession. There he began what he then supposed would be his life work, and such were his studious habits by this time and his grasp of his profession that within four years he took his place as one of the ablest lawyers of the Cincinnati bar and commanded a large practice for so young a lawyer. He did not devote himself wholly to his profession, but was a frequent contributor to the newspapers, and in 1832 projected the publication of a collection of the laws of Ohio for the use of courts and attorneys. This publication became the standard edition of the laws of the state. It failed to bring him much money but it added largely to his reputation.

The opposition to slavery was just begining to make itself felt and Mr. Chase gradually became filled with the idea that human slavery was all wrong. Slaves were constantly escaping from Kentucky into Ohio and much of the law practice of Mr. Chase came from attempts to secure freedom for the runaways or in defending those charged with

aiding in the escape of the fugitives. His early political attachments had been with the Whigs, but he soon became a leader in what was then called the Liberty party—in fact, he was practically the founder and organizer of that party in Ohio. He was the friend and associate of Birney, the great leader of the abolition movement. In 1841 the Whig state government of Ohio enacted a fugitive slave law which wholly estranged Mr. Chase from them, and from that time he co-operated with the Democrats, acting with that wing of the Democratic partly styling themselves "Free-Soil" Democrats.

The accession of Mr. Chase to the Liberty men gave them great strength in the southern part of the state. Within a year he became practically the leader of the Liberal party in Ohio and threw himself actively into the work of organizing and in propagating the doctrines of those opposed to slavery. He issued from the press a series of remarkable addresses to the people, urging the absolute and unqualified divorce of the government from slavery, leaving that institution wholly to the states. He was a delegate to the "Free-Soil" convention held at Buffalo, New York, in October, 1847, and was tendered the nomination for Vice President on the ticket with John P. Hale, but declined. In the campaign of 1848 he supported the ticket headed by Martin Van Buren and was very active, speaking, writing addresses and organizing the working forces of the party.

By a combination of the "Free-Soilers" and Democrats in the Ohio Legislature in 1849, Mr. Chase was elected to the United States Senate, defeating the Whig candidate by a narrow margin. He took his seat in the Senate on March 4, 1849. For the first year his situation was a forlorn one, as the Democrats ignored him, the Whigs would have nothing to do with him and he was not given a place on any of the committees. Finally he got a place on the Committee on Pensions and Claims and there was successful in defeating a number of proposed raids on the treasury.

In 1855 he was nominated by the anti-Nebraska Republican Convention for governor of Ohio. The old Whigs had offered him the nomination for supreme judge, but he insisted on an anti-slavery platform. He was elected governor by a plurality in excess of eighteen thousand. This success put him among the prospective candidates for the presidency in 1856, but the Ohio delegation to the Republican Convention divided between him and Justice John McLean. Mr. Chase was again elected governor in 1858. He was a prominent candidate for the presidential nomination by the Republicans in 1860. He was ambitious to be President, and his failure to receive the nomination in 1860 was a great disappointment to him, but he supported Mr. Lincoln with vigor.

When it came time for Mr. Lincoln to make up his cabinet his first thought turned toward Mr. Seward and Mr. Chase to occupy the two leading positions. The friends of Mr. Seward opposed the selection of Mr. Chase. Mr. Lincoln solved the difficulty by telling them that if Mr.

Chase was left out of the cabinet Mr. Seward would also be left out. Mr. Chase was nominated and confirmed as Secretary of the Treasury, March 5, 1861, and entered upon the discharge of his duties two days later. In all the history of the department, with the single exception of Mr. Hamilton in organizing the department, no Secretary of the Treasury ever had so onerous a task as fell to the lot of Mr. Chase. The outbreak of the war of secession called for vast expenditures of money and the credit of the government was at a very low point.

Secretary Chase projected loans and secured subscriptions thereto; he advised the issue of treasury notes, originated the issue of greenbacks and the establishment of national banks. There was constant friction in the cabinet, but on all financial questions Secretary Chase succeeded in having his own way. He was petulant and irritable and acquired the habit of tendering his resignation whenever the decision of the cabinet or the President clashed with his own views. This was especially the case in the making of appointments. The President would, in his kindly manner, smooth away the irritation and the resignation would be withdrawn.

Secretary Chase suggested the employment of negroes in the war; urged the issuance of a proclamation of emancipation; universal suffrage in reconstruction, the enlistment of colored men in the army and proposed a bill to punish speculations in gold. To Secretary Chase has always been given the credit of writing the dignified and impressive closing paragraph of the Emancipation Proclamation. He wrote much in criticism of the administration of President Lincoln and endeavored on several occasions to interfere in military matters, which caused much friction. On June 29, 1864, he for the fifth time tendered his resignation, and this time it was promptly accepted.

In 1864 an attempt was made to defeat President Lincoln for reelection by running a third candidate, and for a time Mr. Chase hoped to be the candidate, but the sudden successes of the Union armies in different parts of the country put an end to all opposition among the Union men to the election of Mr. Lincoln. On December 6, 1864, President Lincoln sent to the Senate the name of Mr. Chase to be Chief Justice of the Supreme Court to fill the vacancy made by the death of Chief Justice Taney. The nomination was promptly confirmed without being referred to a committee.

The service of Mr. Chase on the Supreme Bench was at a very trying period, as many important and new questions were brought up by the complications arising from the Civil War and the reconstruction of the states, and he was called to pass upon the constitutionality of some of his own acts as a cabinet minister. In the cabinet he had been one of the most insistent in advocacy of severe punishment of those engaged in the South in opposing the government, but not long after he became Chief Justice he was confronted with a case which caused him great perplexity. Jefferson Davis had been captured and was confined at

Fortress Monroe. Later he was indicted by the United States Grand Jury at Norfolk, Virginia. Virginia was in the circuit of the Chief Justice, and if Mr. Davis was to be tried before a civil court, the Chief Justice would have to preside. This Mr. Chase did not want to do, so he refused to hold a court in any of the states of his circuit which were under military jurisdiction. Thus the case was delayed for several years and was finally abandoned.

As Chief Justice he was called upon to preside at the impeachment trial of President Johnson. It was well known that Mr. Chase looked upon the impeachment as impolitic and unwise, and much fear was expressed by the advocates of impeachment that he would so rule as to favor the escape of the President, but his impartiality and fairness in all his rulings won the admiration of those who had most feared him. In the contest between the President and Congress over the reconstruction of the seceded states a number of questions came before the Supreme Court, the Chief Justice invariably holding that the whole matter of reconstruction was, under the Constitution, in the hands of Congress. In one of those cases, Mr. Chase, in his opinion, said: "At no time were the rebellious states out of the pale of the Union. Their rights under the Constitution were suspended but not destroyed. Their constitutional duties and obligations were unaffected and remained the same."

While Secretary of the Treasury Mr. Chase had advocated the issue of the currency commonly known as "greenbacks," but there is some confusion as to whether he favored or opposed the legal tender clause of the act. Some members of Congress who discussed the matter with him while the bill was pending claim that the Secretary favored the insertion of the clause, while some of his friends have contended he opposed it on the grounds of unconstitutionality. When the question came before the court there was great interest as to how Mr. Chase would act. The court, in a divided opinion, held the clause to be repugnant to the Constitution, Mr. Chase voting with the majority. A few months later the decision was reversed.

In 1868 Mr. Chase was anxious for the nomination for President and for a time his name was canvassed by the Republicans. Failing there he expressed a willingness to accept such a nomination at the hands of the Democrats, and for a time it looked as if he would succeed before that party. Many of the prominent Democrats, such as Mr. Tilden and Mr. Seymour, urged his nomination, but finally it was given to Mr. Seymour. In 1870 the health of the Chief Justice began to fail and in August of that year he was seized with paralysis. He gradually improved but was not able to take his seat on the bench during the sessions of the court of 1870-71. He so far recovered as to be able to take his seat during the next two terms and prepared a number of opinions. On May 6, while in New York, a second stroke of paralysis came upon him. He never recovered consciousness and died the next day.

WILLIAM PITT FESSENDEN

WILLIAM PITT FESSENDEN—Secretary of the Treasury, from July 5, 1864, to March 3, 1865. Born at Boscawen, New Hampshire, October 16, 1806. Son of Samuel and Ruth (Greene) Fessenden. Educated at Bowdoin College. Married Ellen Maria Deering. Died in Portland, Maine, September 5, 1869.

1832—Member Maine Legislature.
1840—Member Maine Legislature.
1841—Member national House of Representatives.
1845—Member Maine Legislature.
1853—United States Senator.
1864—Secretary of the Treasury.
1865—United States Senator.

After completing his collegiate course Mr. Fessenden studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1827. He removed to Maine, where he had a distinguished career as a lawyer and as a member of the United States Senate, being regarded as one of the strongest members of that body. As chairman of the Senate Committee on Finance he did much to direct financial legislation during the war between the states. Such was the confidence of the financial interests in his ability that on the news of his appointment as head of the Treasury Department being made public the price of gold fell rapidly. He was able to dispose of five hundred million dollars of government bonds on very favorable terms. During his last term in the Senate he voted against the impeachment of President Johnson.

HUGH MCCULLOCH

HUGH MCCULLOCH—Secretary of the Treasury from March 9, 1865, to March 4, 1869, and from October 31, 1884, to March 7, 1885. Born at Kennebunk, Maine, December 7, 1808. Son of Hugh and Abigail (Perkins) McCulloch. Educated at Bowdoin College. Married, in 1838, Susan Mann. Died near Washington, District of Columbia, May 24, 1895.

1863—Comptroller of the Currency.
1865—Secretary of the Treasury.
1884—Secretary of the Treasury.

Among the Secretaries of the Treasury Hugh McCulloch will always occupy a high place. Born in the state of Maine he received his education at Bowdoin College and then entered upon the study of the law in Boston, Massachusetts. In 1833 he made up his mind that he wanted to cast in his lot with the people of the West, as a more sure place for a young man to climb up the ladder. So, in that year, with a small amount of money but unlimited energy, he began his journey westward in search of a location. His choice finally fell upon Fort Wayne, Indiana, as his future home.

There he began the practice of his chosen profession, but did not continue very long in the practice, for in 1835, when the Fort Wayne branch of the State Bank of Indiana was organized, he was made cashier and manager of the new bank. The old State Bank of Indiana is still spoken of as a model banking institution and it was in that model bank Mr. McCulloch began his financial career. He was so successful in managing the Fort Wayne branch that in 1839 he was appointed a director of the mother bank, a position he held until the expiration of the bank's charter in 1857.

Before the charter of the state bank expired the legislature gave a charter to a new bank to be called the "Bank of the State of Indiana," and refused to renew the charter of the old bank. When it came time to organize the new bank to begin business it was found that none of the organizers was a practical banker and thus they found themselves greatly handicapped. To get out of the difficulty it was proposed to purchase the various branches of the old bank and thus obtain the services of practical and experienced bankers. The owners of the branch banks refused to sell except on condition that Mr. McCulloch be made president of the new bank. This was finally agreed to and Mr. Culloch removed to Indianapolis. The new bank had hardly got into working condition when the great panic of 1857 spread disaster over all the country. All the banks in the East, except the Chemical of New York, and all in the South and West, except the Bank of the State of Indiana and the State Bank of Kentucky, were forced to suspend specie payment.

When the first mutterings of the coming Civil War were heard, Mr. McCulloch was shrewd enough to foresee that should war actually come gold would command a large premium. To prepare for this he instructed the managers of the various branches of his bank to use every dollar not needed in their regular business in the purchase of gold. When he resigned the presidency of the bank in 1863 to accept the position of comptroller of the currency under the law establishing the national banking system, his wisdom in ordering the purchase of gold was seen, for his bank, with a capital of three million dollars, had in its vaults three million three hundred thousand dollars in gold coin. Later the premium on this large amount of coin gave the bank a very large profit.

When the question of establishing a national banking system was first before Congress Mr. McCulloch was one of the most earnest and active opponents of the scheme, but later changed his views when he saw how necessary such a system was to enable the government to secure funds with which to prosecute the war. In 1863, about the time the law creating the national banking system passed Congress, Mr. McCulloch passed through Washington on his way East. Calling at the Treasury Department he left his card for Secretary Chase, whom he had never met. When he returned to Indianapolis he found a num-

ber of telegrams from Secretary Chase urging him to return to Washington and accept the position of comptroller of the currency, a new office just created by act of Congress. After some hesitation he accepted, and on May 9, 1863, took active charge of putting the new system into successful operation. His thorough knowledge of correct banking and his sound conservatism peculiarly fitted him for this new position, and his energy and administrative ability soon won the confidence of bankers and financiers throughout the country. The reports of Mr. McCulloch and his instructions and advice to those organizing banks under the new system, while he was comptroller of the currency, are a mine of healthy banking rules.

On March 7, but three days after his second inaugural, President Lincoln sent to the Senate the name of Mr. McCulloch as Secretary of the Treasury. He was unanimously confirmed and he at once entered upon the discharge of his duties as head of the department. Almost immediately after the close of the war Secretary McCulloch advocated the gradual withdrawal of the legal tender notes, or, as commonly called, "greenbacks." This recommendation was endorsed by the House of Representatives by a vote of one hundred and forty-four to six. Immediately after the assassination of President Lincoln there were indications of a panic in Wall Street, which Secretary McCulloch promptly checked by purchasing, through a trusted agent, all bonds of the government offered for sale at less than par. It was important for the government to prevent a panic, as it expected in a very short time to put on the market a large amount of securities to meet the pressing demands of the treasury, and the timely act of Secretary McCulloch restored confidence to the money market, prevented a money stringency and paved the way for the successful negotiation of the new loan. On several other occasions Secretary McCulloch steadied the money market by purchasing for the government all its bonds offered for sale at a discount.

In getting the internal revenue system and the collection customs duties in working order in the lately seceded states, Secretary McCulloch met with many difficulties, mainly because of the test oath, required by the act of Congress to be taken by all government officers, and he suggested and urged a modification of the oath. This suggestion was bitterly assailed by Senator Sumner and others, but was finally accepted by Congress. Secretary McCulloch, while not approving of all the acts of President Johnson in his contention with Congress over the problem of reconstruction, felt that he owed it to the country to remain at the head of the Treasury Department, and he did so remain through the administration of President Johnson.

After leaving the Treasury Department Mr. McCulloch entered into the banking business in New York and London. In October, 1884, the Treasury Department was once more without a head and President Arthur induced Mr. McCulloch to again take it. President Arthur's

term was drawing to a close and Mr. McCulloch had little opportunity to do more in the department than to weed out some of the mistakes made by his predecessors. At the close of the administration Mr. McCulloch once more retired to private life.

GEORGE SEWALL BOUTWELL

GEORGE S. BOUTWELL—Secretary of the Treasury from March 12, 1869, to March 17, 1873. Born in Brookline, Massachusetts, January 28, 1818. Son of Sewall and Rebecca (Marshall) Boutwell. Educated in the common schools. Married, July 8, 1841, Sarah Adelia Thayer. Died in Groton, Massachusetts, February 27, 1905.

1842—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1847—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1850—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1851—Governor of Massachusetts.
1853—Member Massachusetts Constitutional Convention.
1862—Commissioner of Internal Revenue.
1863—Member national House of Representatives.
1869—Secretary of the Treasury.
1873—United States Senator.

George S. Boutwell was the first Commissioner of Internal Revenue of the United States, and for many years was one of the leading international lawyers of the country, serving also as Secretary of the Treasury in the cabinet of President Grant, as a member of the lower house of Congress and as United States senator. He was a descendant of an old Massachusetts family. He attended the public schools and at the age of thirteen years was placed as a clerk in a store and at the age of sixteen taught school. To be a lawyer was his dream and to the study of that science he gave all his spare time. In politics he was an active Democrat and by repeated elections served ten years in the State Legislature. As a legislator he took great interest in all matters pertaining to education and in 1857 was appointed a member of the Harvard College Board of Overseers. In 1851 he was elected governor of the state by a fusion of the Democrats and Free Soilers. For seven years he served as a member of the Massachusetts Board of Education.

When Congress provided for the Bureau of Internal Revenue, Governor Boutwell was appointed the first commissioner and organized the bureau, putting the revenue law into effect. When the bureau was first organized no cashier was provided for by law and the commissioner was not required to give a bond. In 1864 the law was changed, providing for a cashier to handle all the money in place of the commissioner, and the commissioner, having been relieved of the handling and care of the money, was required to give a bond.

In 1863 Mr. Boutwell was elected to Congress as a Republican and served until 1869, when he resigned to accept a place in the cabinet of

President Grant as Secretary of the Treasury. In Congress he was regarded as one of the strongest debaters on the Republican side, taking great interest in the financial legislation.

Mr. Boutwell supported the congressional plan of reconstruction. He presented to the House a series of resolutions declaring in substance that the communities that had been in rebellion could be organized into states only by the will of the loyal people expressed freely and in the absence of all coercion; that states so organized could become states of the Union only upon application and upon affirmative action of the national government. He drafted the amendment to the appropriation bill of 1866 which took the control of the army from the President and gave it to the commander-in-chief of the army. He reported the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution and the resolutions declaring that President Johnson should be impeached, and was chairman of the committee appointed to prepare the articles of impeachment and was also one of the house managers at the impeachment trial.

In 1869, when General Grant became President, he desired Alexander T. Stewart, an eminent merchant of New York, for Secretary of the Treasury and nominated him for that office. The nomination was confirmed by the Senate and then it was discovered that under an act passed in 1789 Mr. Stewart was ineligible, being engaged in the importation of foreign merchandise. Mr. Stewart declined and Mr. Boutwell was nominated. As Secretary of the Treasury Mr. Boutwell displayed great financial and administrative ability. He originated the plan for refunding the public debt at a lower rate of interest and, through Assistant Secretary of the Treasury Richardson, whom he sent to Europe for that purpose, succeeded in placing several hundred millions of five per cent bonds. These bonds were sent to Europe in three safes under extraordinary precautions. The safes were sent by different steamers. Each safe was provided with three locks, requiring different keys. The keys were sent by special messengers, each messenger carrying one key. As fast as the bonds were disposed of the proceeds were deposited in the Bank of England and holders of bonds bearing a higher rate of interest were called upon to present them for payment.

The law of 1862 provided for the establishment of a sinking fund for the liquidation of the public debt, but no steps had been taken to carry out the intent of the act and nothing done to provide for the redemption of the government's obligations as had been promised when the government was a borrower. Secretary Boutwell at once addressed himself to establishing this long-neglected sinking fund. In his four years' service as Secretary the payments on the public debt reached three hundred and sixty-four millions.

In 1869 the government was paying interest, measured at the gold value, of seven per cent. In 1873, when Mr. Boutwell left the depart-

ment, the interest had been reduced to five per cent or less, the annual interest charge being reduced thirty million dollars. When he entered the Treasury Department the price of gold was about forty per cent premium; when he left the department gold was selling at twelve per cent. This reduction in the price of gold was owing to the policy of Secretary Boutwell selling gold and purchasing government bonds for the treasury.

Great evils existed in the internal revenue bureau and gross frauds on the revenue had been perpetrated. The loss on whiskey during the last year of President Johnson's administration was estimated to reach thirty million dollars. Payments on the public debt during the last year of President Johnson's administration was thirty million dollars; during the first years of President Grant's administration the payments were one hundred million dollars, without additional sources of revenue.

Secretary Boutwell reorganized the bureau of engraving and printing, had new plates made, a special paper manufactured and took precautions against loss. Prior to that time the superintendent of the bureau had control of the paper, the engravers, the printing and the red seal. Secretary Boutwell divided these matters, took the red seal to the department, placed the control of the engravers under one person, the printing under another, and the manufacture and keeping of the paper under a third.

He also reformed the revenue marine service, bringing it to a greater efficiency. He had the mint laws codified, secured the appointment of a director of the mint and stopped the coinage of silver dollars. In September, 1869, an attempt was made by speculators to corner the gold supply and the country was on the eve of a financial panic. The price of gold had been forced up to one hundred and sixty. On the twenty-third of the month Secretary Boutwell wired to the assistant treasurer at New York to sell four million dollars of gold the next day. This order was not sent in cipher and there was no attempt to keep it secret—in fact, the Secretary desired it to have wide publicity. Within less than half an hour after this order became public in New York the price of gold fell from one hundred and sixty to one hundred and thirty-three. The scenes in the gold room of the exchange gave the name of "Black Friday" to the day.

In 1872 he was appointed United States senator to fill the vacancy occasioned by the election of Senator Wilson as Vice President. He served in the Senate four years. In 1877 President Hayes appointed him commissioner to codify the acts of Congress; and in 1880 he was appointed counsel for the United States before the commission to settle the claims between France and the United States, a labor that required four years. He engaged in the practice of international law at Washington and appeared as counsel for several foreign countries.

Mr. Boutwell was one of the leaders in the movement to nominate General Grant for a third term, in 1880, and was one of the three hundred and six "gold medal" delegates. When the war with Spain ended with the acquisition of Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands by the United States, Mr. Boutwell became an earnest opponent of what was called "imperialism" and was president of the Anti-Imperialist League.

WILLIAM ADAMS RICHARDSON

WILLIAM A. RICHARDSON—Secretary of the Treasury from March 17, 1873, to June 4, 1874. Born at Tyngsborough, Massachusetts, November 2, 1821. Son of Daniel and Mary (Adams) Richardson. Educated at Harvard College. Married, in 1849, Anna Maria Marston. Died in Washington city, October 19, 1896.

1869—Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.
1873—Secretary of the Treasury.
1874—Associate Justice of the Court of Claims.
1885—Chief Justice of the Court of Claims.

Mr. Richardson belonged to an old and influential family of New England. Graduating from Harvard College in 1843 he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1846. In 1869 Mr. Boutwell, who had long known him, selected him for Assistant Secretary of the Treasury and sent him on a confidential mission to Europe to convey to London and dispose of one hundred and thirty million dollars of bonds negotiated for the purpose of refunding the public debt at a lower rate of interest. The only cost to the government was the expenses of Mr. Richardson.

When Secretary Boutwell resigned Mr. Richardson was nominated by the President for the vacancy. His most important act while Secretary of the Treasury was to transfer to this country from London the fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars awarded against Great Britain by the Geneva Tribunal. The award was to be paid in gold and great fears were expressed that the sudden withdrawal of that amount of specie might disturb financial conditions there while the influx into New York would act in a similar manner, but the Secretary managed the affair so as not to disturb conditions in either country. During the great financial panic of 1873 he so managed the treasury as to keep it from being in any way involved.

In 1874 he became involved in what is known as the "Sanborn Contract" scandal. While Mr. Richardson was assistant secretary, but acting as secretary during a temporary absence of Secretary Boutwell, he signed a contract with John D. Sanborn for the collection of certain taxes illegally withheld by distillers, giving to Sanborn one-half of the amount recovered. Sanborn had been previously employed to work up certain whiskey cases for the government, for which he had been paid three thousand dollars, and these cases were included in the contract signed by Mr. Richardson. Later Sanborn had eight hundred more

names added and an additional contract was signed. Still later Mr. Richardson permitted him to add two thousand more names. Sanborn had no knowledge of any delinquency except as to the small number included in his first employment. Under these contracts Sanborn collected within a year four hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars, of which he claimed one-half. Congress caused an investigation and found that a large majority of the cases were not a proper subject of contract, as the taxes could have been collected in the regular manner and by the regular officials of the service, and that the whole contract was a distinct violation of the law. The committee unanimously agreed to report a resolution demanding the removal from office of Secretary Richardson. President Grant was informed of this action and asked the committee to withhold its report and he would request the resignation of Mr. Richardson. This was done and the next day the resignation was tendered and accepted.

BENJAMIN HELM BRISTOW

BENJAMIN H. BRISTOW—Secretary of the Treasury from June 4, 1874, to June 20, 1876. Born in Elkton, Kentucky, June 20, 1832. Educated at Jefferson College. Died in New York city, June 22, 1896.

18 —Member Kentucky Senate.
1867—United States Attorney for Kentucky.
1871—Solicitor General of the Treasury Department.
1874—Secretary of the Treasury.

Graduating from Jefferson College in 1851, Mr. Bristow studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1853, beginning his practice in Louisville, Kentucky. He was a Democrat in politics and as a Democrat was elected to the State Senate. He was holding a large and lucrative practice when the war between the states broke out. He was among the leaders of the Union sentiment in Kentucky and assisted largely in holding that state loyal to the Union. He offered his services to the government and was appointed lieutenant colonel of the twenty-fifth Kentucky volunteer infantry, with which regiment he served with distinguished gallantry.

In 1867 President Johnson appointed Mr. Bristow United States Attorney for Kentucky and he was holding that office when President Grant tendered him the office of solicitor general of the Treasury Department in 1871. As solicitor general Mr. Bristow won the confidence of President Grant, who placed a high value upon his legal attainments. When Attorney General Williams was nominated by the President for Chief Justice of the United States, the President nominated Mr. Bristow as the successor of Mr. Williams as Attorney General. A decided opposition to the confirmation of Mr. Williams developed in the Senate and grew so strong that President Grant withdrew his name and also that of Mr. Bristow.

When Mr. Richardson resigned as Secretary of the Treasury on the request of the President, Mr. Bristow was promptly nominated for head of the Treasury Department. The nomination was confirmed by the unanimous vote of the Senate the next day and Mr. Bristow at once assumed the duties of the office.

The administration of the department by Mr. Bristow was characterized by great energy and the strictest economy and the department was made efficient in every branch of the service. Among other reforms he introduced was the shifting of gaugers and storekeepers connected with the collection of internal revenue. He made a pretty clean change of location of these officials and one of the speedy results was the uncovering of the operations of what is known as the "Whiskey Ring," by which the government had been defrauded of many thousands of dollars.

This ring had been organized to control revenue legislation and to avoid the payment of revenue taxes. It was an association of distillers, in collusion with federal officers, and for some years succeeded in defrauding the government of large sums of the tax on distilled spirits. A number of prominent citizens, especially in the Middle West, were connected with the organization, among them being editors, lawyers, merchants and bankers. O. E. Babcock, one of the secretaries of President Grant, was accused of being connected with the ring, and was indicted by the grand jury, but a conviction was not obtained. Several federal officers were convicted and received prison sentences. The discovery of and the breaking up of this ring was due to the methods set on foot by Secretary Bristow.

This brought Mr. Bristow prominently before the public as a presidential possibility and he was voted for before the Republican National Convention of 1876, but failed of receiving the nomination. After retiring from the cabinet Mr. Bristow located in New York city in the practice of his profession.

LOT MYRICK MORRILL

LOT M. MORRILL—Secretary of the Treasury from July 7, 1876, to March 9, 1877. Born in Belgrade, Maine, May 3, 1813. Son of Peasley and Nancy (Macomer) Morrill. Educated at Waterville (now Colby) College. Died in Augusta, Maine, January 10, 1883.

1853—Member Maine Legislature.
1856—Member Maine Senate.
1857—Governor of Maine.
1861—United States Senator.
1869—United States Senator.
1876—Secretary of the Treasury.
1877—Collector of Customs, Portland, Maine.

Lot M. Morrill was one of a family of seven sons and seven daughters and grew into prominence in his state and in the nation by his

own unaided efforts. While attending the common schools of his neighborhood he worked in a saw-mill and clerked in a store out of school hours to assist him in securing an education. At sixteen he was a teacher. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1837. In politics he affiliated with the Democratic party, but was ever an opponent of the extension of slavery, and finally became a Republican when that party was organized. In 1857 he was elected governor of the state and was twice re-elected.

In 1861 he was appointed to the United States Senate to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Hannibal Hamlin, who had been elected Vice President, serving until March 3, 1869. In December of that year he was again appointed to the Senate to fill the vacancy occasioned by the death of William Pitt Fessenden. He served until 1876 when he resigned to become Secretary of the Treasury in the cabinet of President Grant. In the Senate he was classed as a conservative, but supported earnestly the administration of President Lincoln and opposed the reconstruction policy of President Johnson. He served only a few months as Secretary of the Treasury following the financial policy of his predecessor.

JOHN SHERMAN

JOHN SHERMAN—Secretary of the Treasury from March 10, 1877, to March 3, 1881; Secretary of State from March 6, 1897, to April 25, 1898. Born at Lancaster, Ohio, May 10, 1822. Son of Charles Robert and Mary (Hoyt) Sherman. Educated in the public schools of Lancaster and Mount Vernon, Ohio. Married, August 31, 1848, Miss Margaret Cecelia Stewart. Died at Washington, District of Columbia, October 22, 1900.

1855—Member national House of Representatives.
1861—United States Senator.
1877—Secretary of the Treasury.
1881—United States Senator.
1897—Secretary of State.

For forty years John Sherman was in active public life and in a much more than ordinary degree left his impress upon the legislative and administrative history of the country. After serving six years as a member of the House of Representatives he had been a member of the Senate sixteen years when he resigned his seat to accept a place in the cabinet of President Hayes as Secretary of the Treasury. After serving in the cabinet for four years and establishing a reputation as one of the great financial secretaries in the history of the country, he again entered the Senate and served continuously for another period of sixteen years, when he again resigned his seat to accept a place in the cabinet, this time as Secretary of State in the cabinet of President McKinley. Six years in the House, thirty-two years in the Senate and five in the cabinet is the record of his public service.

Mr. Sherman's ancestry on both sides were of English stock. The first to come to America was Samuel Sherman, who settled in Massachusetts in 1634, but a little later moved into Connecticut. Charles Robert Sherman, the father of John, removed from Connecticut to Ohio in 1810 and became prominent in political and legal affairs before his early death which occurred while he was a member of the Supreme Court of the state. He left a widow and eleven children, John being the eighth and only six years old at the time of his father's death. The widow with her large family was left in very straitened circumstances.

John, after studying for eight years in the schools of Lancaster, his native town, and at Mount Vernon, at the age of fourteen years struck out for himself, taking employment with a surveying force engaged in public improvement work carried on by the state. In March, 1840, he left this employment and began the study of law at Mansfield, Ohio. He was admitted to the bar in 1844 and for ten years diligently practiced his profession, reaching a high place in the esteem of the bar and of the public. Taking an active interest in political affairs he soon acquired a local leadership among those who earnestly opposed the further extension of slavery. At first he affiliated with the Whigs and was a delegate to the national convention of that party in 1848 and 1852, but became a Republican when that party was organized, presiding over the first Republican convention held in Ohio. It was the convention which nominated Salmon P. Chase for governor.

In 1854 he was elected to Congress as a Republican and continued to be a member of that body until he was elected to the Senate in 1861. At first he was supposed not to be sufficiently radical in his opposition to slavery, notwithstanding his being a Republican, and some of the more radical members of that party looked upon him with some suspicion. By nature he was disposed to be rather conservative. The district he represented in Congress had for many years been looked upon as being reliably Democratic, but such was Mr. Sherman's popularity that he was able to carry it by a majority of nearly three thousand.

At the time Mr. Sherman entered Congress questions relating to Kansas were uppermost in the public mind. He was made a member of the committee appointed to investigate an election held in Kansas to adopt a constitution and wrote the report of the majority of the committee holding that the election had been characterized by great frauds. By 1859 he had won his way in the regard of his Republican colleagues in the House to the point where he was made the caucus nominee of the party for speaker. The balloting continued for eight weeks and on February 1 Mr. Sherman withdrew his name and William Pennington, of New Jersey, was chosen.

In 1861 Mr. Sherman was elected to the United States Senate to succeed Senator Chase, who had been appointed Secretary of the Treasury in the cabinet of President Lincoln. From that time until he himself resigned in 1877 to take the same position in the cabinet of President

Hayes, Mr. Sherman was a prominent figure in the political life of the nation. He advocated and supported all measures before the Senate for a vigorous prosecution of the war until the war ended. He was one of the strong opponents of President Johnson's attempts to reconstruct the seceded states and voted for his impeachment.

Senator Sherman was among the earliest and most earnest advocates for a return to specie payment by the government. He presented to the Senate and advocated a plan for the refunding of the enormous national debt at a lower rate of interest as a preparatory step toward the resumption of specie payments. As a part of his plan he advocated the continuance in circulation of a large volume of the legal tenders and that they be made readily exchangeable for government bonds at a low rate of interest, the principal and interest of the bonds to be payable in coin. Mr. McCulloch, Secretary of the Treasury, had advocated a rapid withdrawal of the legal tenders, but Senator Sherman believed it to be the best policy to retain them in circulation and that they be made a part of the permanent monetary supply of the country. At a later period he had the opportunity as Secretary of the Treasury to put this theory to the test.

In 1877 Senator Sherman became Secretary of the Treasury, accepting the place in order to be able to carry out the scheme for specie resumption he had formulated and advocated in the Senate. The two great questions before him as Secretary of the Treasury were resumption of specie payments and the refunding of the public debt. He almost immediately began making preparations to have the treasury in condition to resume specie payment at the date that had been fixed by the act passed by Congress. With these preparations he coupled others for refunding the public debt at a lower rate of interest and for the inauguration of measures for the sale of bonds directly to the public. Prior to this all bonds had been sold through the aid of a syndicate and when Mr. Sherman became Secretary of the Treasury a contract was in force providing for the sale of three hundred million dollars of four and one-half per cent bonds payable after fifteen years. It had been expected that the larger part of this bond issue would be taken by European bankers. The commission to be paid the syndicate was one-half of one per cent. In April 6, 1877, Secretary Sherman notified the syndicate that he desired to dispose of four per cent bonds rather than those drawing four and one-half per cent. He gave notice to the public of the proposed sale, by general advertisement, with the most gratifying results.

January 1, 1879, was the date fixed by act of Congress for the resumption of specie payments by the government, and it was to be ready for that Secretary Sherman was bending his energies as well as to test the readiness of the people to subscribe for the bonds of the government bearing a low rate of interest. Congress met in special session on October 15, 1877, and it soon became evident that a major-

ity of the members were not in sympathy with the views of the new Secretary of the Treasury. Four bills were introduced in the Senate and fourteen in the House for the repeal of the act ordering a resumption of specie payment. Matters were still further complicated by the proposal of a measure providing for the free coinage of silver. Secretary Sherman pushed on his preparations, and while the controversy over free silver was pending, one of the bills to repeal the Resumption Act passed the House. After a long struggle it was amended in the Senate. It then became involved in a parliamentary tangle that lasted for months, and before the snarl was untangled January 1, 1879, the date for resumption came, and under Secretary Sherman resumption became a fixed fact.

During the year 1878 the premium on gold continued to steadily decline, but there remained an uneasy feeling as the day for resumption approached. January 1, 1879, happened to come on Sunday, so the question of the ability of the government to actually resume could not be tested until the second. It was expected that on the morning of the second there would be a long procession in Wall Street, New York, of holders of legal tenders pressing to the doors of the sub-treasury anxious to exchange the notes for gold, but at the closing of business hours on that day only one hundred and thirty-five thousand dollars of the notes had been presented for redemption, while four hundred thousand dollars in gold had been presented to be exchanged for legal tenders.

So great was the relief and joy throughout the country that unusual honors were paid to Secretary Sherman. The New York Chamber of Commerce requested that he sit for a portrait to be placed upon the walls of the chamber, an honor that had been paid to no previous Secretary of the Treasury except Alexander Hamilton.

The changed condition brought about by the resumption of specie payment enabled Secretary Sherman to dispose of bonds readily at a low rate of interest, and in March, 1879, four hundred and seventy-three million dollars were disposed of, and the Secretary proceeded with his calls for the presentation for payment of the higher interest bearing bonds. In April of that year the government was able to demand a premium on its bonds. In the first two and a half years of the administration of Secretary Sherman the Treasury Department refunded eight hundred and forty-five million, three hundred and forty-three thousand, nine hundred and fifty dollars of the outstanding bonds, effecting an annual saving in the interest charge of more than fourteen million dollars.

A short time prior to his nomination for the presidency General Garfield had been elected to the Senate. His elevation to the presidency left a vacancy in the Senate and early in January, 1881, Secretary Sherman was unanimously nominated by the Republican members of the Ohio Legislature to fill the vacancy and he was duly elected. Four years before he had stepped from the Senate to the cabinet, and he now

stepped from the cabinet to the Senate, where he was to remain for another sixteen years.

During this service in the Senate he was closely identified with much of the important legislation, especially with what came to be known as the Silver-Purchase and Anti-Trust laws, although he has always disclaimed responsibility for the Silver-Purchase Act, which he prepared, as he said, with a view of harmonizing the discordant views of his party and to prevent the adoption of a more radical silver measure. Anti-trust legislation was first enacted in 1890 by the fifty-first Congress. Under that act succeeding administrations prosecuted many combines and trusts.

In March, 1897, Senator Sherman reluctantly resigned his seat in the Senate to accept the State Department under President McKinley. He was nominated, confirmed and commissioned on March 5 and entered upon the discharge of his duties the next day. He was not happy in his position and there was much friction between him and the President. He held the position for a little more than one year, when he resigned. During his administration an important event in the history of the nation occurred—the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands. Secretary Sherman negotiated a treaty annexing the islands but it failed of receiving the necessary two-thirds vote in the Senate. The annexation was then accomplished by a joint resolution of the two Houses. Secretary Sherman resigned April 25, 1898.

Mr. Sherman was ambitious to become President and in 1880, 1884 and in 1888 he was a prominent candidate for the nomination before the Republican conventions, but was never able to secure the active and enthusiastic support of his party in his own state. After his defeat in 1888 he wrote his memoirs, in which he assailed some of the others who had been before the convention for the methods pursued by them and their friends to secure delegates.

WILLIAM WINDOM

WILLIAM WINDOM—Secretary of the Treasury from March 8, 1881, to November 14, 1881, and from March 7, 1889, to January 29, 1891. Born in Belmont county, Ohio, May 10, 1827. Son of Hezekiah and Mary (Spencer) Windom. Educated in the public schools. Married, in 1856, Ellen P. Hatch. Died in New York city, January 29, 1891.

1859—Member national House of Representatives.
1870—United States Senator.
1871—United States Senator.
1881—Secretary of the Treasury.
1881—United States Senator.
1889—Secretary of the Treasury.

William Windom was of Quaker parentage and spent his early years in a log cabin on a farm. He was fond of books and picked up a desultory education in the country schools and from reading in the time he

could spare from work on the farm until he was able to attend the Mount Vernon (Ohio) Academy for a short time. He was taken from the academy before he could complete his course and apprenticed to a tailor. Being determined to secure an education he managed to return to the academy. Over the protest of his parents he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1850.

In 1855 he removed to Winona, Minnesota, and engaged in the practice of his profession. Taking a lively interest in politics and being opposed to slavery he joined the Republican party, and as a Republican was elected to Congress, serving from March 4, 1859, to March 3, 1869. In 1870 he was appointed to the United States Senate to fill the unexpired term of Daniel S. Norton, deceased, taking his seat July 16. When the legislature of Minnesota met Oscar P. Stearns was elected for the remainder of the term from January 18, 1871. The term of Mr. Stearns expired on March 3, 1871, and Mr. Windom was elected for the full term beginning March 4, 1871, and served until he resigned in 1881 to become Secretary of the Treasury in the cabinet of President Garfield.

Both in the House and in the Senate Mr. Windom took an active part in the discussions and was noted for his industry in committee work. He took a special interest in all matters concerning the financial affairs of the government and in banking and currency matters. He served a period of only eight months as Secretary of the Treasury, but in that short time became a financial authority. It was at a time when a financial crisis confronted the government; the public debt was enormous and the annual interest charge very heavy. His predecessor had begun the work of refunding the public debt at a lower rate of interest and Secretary Windom pushed this matter with great energy.

Secretary of State Blaine wanted the President to call an extra session of Congress to authorize the Treasury Department to issue new bonds. Secretary Windom insisted he could settle the question without the aid of Congress and force the banks to exchange their higher interest bearing bonds for those bearing three and one-half per cent. The President adopted his views and Mr. Windom pushed the matter.

He invited the banks to exchange their higher interest bonds for the lower, and when they demurred informed them he would call in the higher bonds and redeem them, thus leaving the banks without bonds upon which to issue their currency. This brought the banks to accept his terms and the exchange was promptly made, the expense to the government being only about ten thousand dollars while the saving in the annual interest charge was in excess of ten million dollars. It was this action of Secretary Windom which led President Benjamin Harrison to call him once more to the head of the Treasury Department. The death of Secretary Windom was tragic. On January 29, 1891, he delivered a patriotic address before the New York Board of Trade and as he spoke the last words of the address he sank to the floor. He was dead by the time those who were nearest him could reach his side.

CHARLES JAMES FOLGER

CHARLES J. FOLGER—Secretary of the Treasury from November 14, 1881, to September 4, 1884. Born in Nantucket, Massachusetts, April 16, 1816. Educated at Hobart College. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, September 4, 1884.

1844—Judge of the New York Court of Common Pleas.
1861—Member New York Senate.
1867—Member New York Constitutional Convention.
1869—Assistant United States Treasurer at New York city.
1870—Associate Justice of the New York Court of Appeals.
1881—Secretary of the Treasury.

Graduating from college with the highest honors in 1836, Mr. Folger studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1839. He was a Democrat in politics, following the Silas Wright wing of that party; but disagreeing with his party on the slavery question, he took part in organizing the Republican party in New York.

As a member of the New York Senate and of the Constitutional Convention of that state he won distinction as a foe to every kind of corruption. As Secretary of the Treasury in the cabinet of President Arthur his administration was conservative and business-like. While he was Secretary he was nominated by the Republicans of New York as their candidate for governor, but was defeated by Grover Cleveland, afterward President of the United States, by a plurality of nearly two hundred thousand. He died in office.

DANIEL MANNING

DANIEL MANNING—Secretary of the Treasury from March 8, 1885, to March 31, 1887. Born in Albany, New York, August 16, 1831. Educated in the public schools. Married, in 1853, Mary Lee. Died in Albany, New York, December 24, 1887.

1885—Secretary of the Treasury.

At the age of twelve years Mr. Manning went into a printing office to learn that trade. Later he became one of the editors of the Albany *Atlas*, which became the Albany *Argus*. He was a pungent and fearless writer and through his paper energetically fought what is known as the Tweed Ring. This brought Mr. Manning into close friendship with the late Samuel J. Tilden and also of Grover Cleveland, afterward President of the United States, who called Mr. Manning into his cabinet as Secretary of the Treasury.

For years, under the editorial management of Mr. Manning, the *Argus* was one of the leading Democratic papers of the state of New York, exerting a wide influence. On the accession of Mr. Cleveland to the presidency, March 4, 1885, he selected Mr. Manning for head of the Treasury Department, being largely influenced thereto by his

record as a determined foe to corruption and partly by his well-known executive ability in the management of the many business interests in which he was engaged. In the Treasury Department he introduced some reforms in the methods of conducting the business, all looking toward an economic policy. He resigned his position in 1887 and returned to Albany.

CHARLES STEBBINS FAIRCHILD

CHARLES S. FAIRCHILD—Secretary of the Treasury from April 1, 1887, to March 6, 1889. Born in Cazenovia, New York, April 30, 1842. Son of Sidney and Helen (Childs) Fairchild. Educated at Harvard College. Married, in January, 1871, Helen Linklaon. Died at Cazenovia, New York, November 24, 1924.

1876—Attorney General of New York.
1885—Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.
1887—Secretary of the Treasury.

Mr. Fairchild graduated from Harvard College in 1863; studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1866. He took an active interest in the political affairs of the state, as a Democrat, and always on the side of reform in the administration of public affairs. In 1876 he was made attorney general of the state. He became a warm friend of Mr. Cleveland when he was governor of New York, and was active in aiding his nomination and later his election as President. Soon after his inauguration as President Mr. Cleveland invited Mr. Fairchild to accept the position as Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. In that position he won the confidence of the President and of Congress to such an extent that when Secretary Manning resigned he was appointed and confirmed as his successor.

He served through the remainder of the administration of President Cleveland and then returned to New York and engaged in the banking business, becoming interested in the management of some of the strong financial institutions of that city.

CHARLES FOSTER

CHARLES FOSTER—Secretary of the Treasury from February 25, 1891, to March 7, 1893. Born near Tiffin, Ohio, April 12, 1828. Educated at Norwalk (Ohio) Academy. Died in Fostoria, Ohio, January 9, 1904.

1871—Member national House of Representatives.
1880—Governor of Ohio.
1891—Secretary of the Treasury.

The father of Charles Foster was a successful farmer and business man, for years operating a country store in connection with his farming operations. At the age of four years young Charles became a pupil in the public schools and at twelve entered Norwalk Academy. He did

not complete his academic course, owing to the protracted illness of his father. At the age of fourteen he practically assumed the management and control of his father's business, displaying great business ability. When he reached the age of eighteen his father took him into partnership and through his energy the firm was soon doing the largest country business in the state of Ohio.

Mr. Foster became interested in the banking and railroad business and accumulated a large fortune. In 1870 he was elected to Congress and served four terms, from March 4, 1871, to March 3, 1879, as a Republican. He was energetic in his efforts to reduce expenses and was instrumental in exposing the "Sanborn Contracts" at the time Mr. Richardson was Secretary of the Treasury. Under the Sanborn contracts large sums of money had been wrongfully taken from the treasury.

In 1879 he was nominated by the Republicans for governor of the state, defeating in the convention, by seven and one-half votes, Judge Taft, father of William H. Taft, afterward President of the United States. Mr. Foster's administration as governor was characterized by the same energy in securing economy in the affairs of the state as he had displayed in Congress and was so popular with the people that he was re-elected by a largely increased majority. He entered the cabinet of President Benjamin Harrison on the death of Secretary Windom and served through the administration.

JOHN GRIFFIN CARLISLE

JOHN G. CARLISLE—Secretary of the Treasury from March 7, 1893, to March 6, 1897. Born in Campbell (now Kenton) county, Kentucky, September 5, 1835. Educated in the public schools. Died in New York city, July 31, 1910.

1859—Member Kentucky House of Representatives.
1866—Member Kentucky Senate.
1871—Lieutenant Governor of Kentucky.
1877—Member national House of Representatives.
1883—Speaker House of Representatives.
1885—Speaker House of Representatives.
1887—Speaker House of Representatives.
1890—United States Senator.
1893—Secretary of the Treasury.

For a quarter of a century John G. Carlisle was a conspicuous figure in the national life of the United States. Without the foundation of a collegiate education he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1858. At the close of his life he was regarded as one of the ablest lawyers of the country. His education was only such as the public schools of Kentucky could give, but on that foundation he built and few men in public life had a greater knowledge of the history of this and other countries than John G. Carlisle. He early in life began the study of the law and to its study he bent all his energies, but was not

admitted to the bar until he was twenty-three years of age. Like the majority of the lawyers in his day he took an active interest in politics and in 1859 was elected a member of the Kentucky House of Representatives.

At that time one of the main issues was secession. Mr. Carlisle was a Union man and strongly fought secession and was one of those who was instrumental in keeping Kentucky steadfast to the Union. He was twice a member of the Kentucky Senate and in 1871 was elected lieutenant governor of the state. In 1876, when he was forty-one years of age, Mr. Carlisle was elected to the national House of Representatives. He was then in the maturity of his intellectual powers and soon took his place as one of the leaders of his party. He had not neglected his law practice to indulge in politics and at the time of his entrance into national political life was regarded as one of the foremost lawyers of Kentucky. Such was his hold on the people of his district and state that he was seven times elected to the House of Representatives and then elevated to the Senate.

When he entered Congress the reconstruction of the lately seceded states was still an issue and Mr. Carlisle placed himself among those who opposed the radical measures advocated by the extreme Republicans. He took part in the debates and was soon ranked as one of the ablest and most logical of the members of that body, a body which counted among its members such men as Garfield, Randall, Mills, Culbertson and Cannon.

In the forty-eighth Congress the tariff wing of the Democrats were in the majority and demanded the election of Mr. Carlisle to the speakership. He must be counted as one of the greatest of the speakers of the American House of Representatives. A strict parliamentarian, he enforced the rules with impartiality which made him popular with both political parties. His bent of mind was eminently judicial, and he ruled as a judge and not as a partisan.

In 1890 he was elected to the Senate to fill the vacancy occasioned by the death of Senator Beck. He served in the Senate until he was called to a place in the cabinet of President Cleveland as Secretary of the Treasury. At that time the Sherman Silver-Purchase law had about exhausted the "free" gold in the treasury. Gold had to be had and there seemingly was no way to get it but by the sale of bonds, and Secretary Carlisle advocated this plan notwithstanding the great discontent caused thereby. The public credit was preserved and it was one of the finest examples of financial statesmanship in the history of the Treasury Department. A financial panic came, but Secretary Carlisle stood by his policy and finally triumphed.

In 1897 he retired to private life, a poor man. He was regarded as one of the ablest lawyers of the country and he located in New York city to practice his profession. He soon commanded a large and lucrative practice.

LYMAN JUDSON GAGE

LYMAN JUDSON GAGE—Secretary of the Treasury from March 6, 1897, to January 31, 1902. Born at DeRuyter, Madison county, New York, June 28, 1836. Son of Eli A. and Mary (Judson) Gage. Educated at Rome Academy. Married, in 1864, Sarah Etheridge; in 1887, Mrs. Cornelia Washburn; November 26, 1909, Mrs. Frances Ada Ballou.

1897—Secretary of the Treasury.

A seat in the cabinet of President McKinley was the first public office filled by Mr. Gage. Removing with his parents to Rome, New York, when he was twelve years of age, he almost at once began working for himself. At the age of seventeen he found employment in a bank as office boy. From that he graduated into a junior clerkship, all the time applying himself earnestly to master the science of banking. He was thus employed until in 1855 when he thought Chicago offered a more inviting field for growth. He was then nineteen years of age, but his ardent nature made the future bright for him.

His first employment in Chicago was as a clerk in a planing mill. Within three years he had advanced to the position of bookkeeper for the mill. He remained with the mill until 1861 when he accepted the position of bookkeeper for the Manchester Loan and Trust Company, a growing financial institution. Of this institution he became vice president.

In 1891 he became president of the First National Bank of Chicago. By that time he had built up for himself a reputation as an able and safe financier of great executive and administrative ability. He continued as president of the First National until he was called to Washington to become the head of the Treasury Department.

His standing in the financial world was so high that his appointment by President McKinley as Secretary of the Treasury was received everywhere with evidence of satisfaction on the part of bankers and business men. When war came with Spain he found no difficulty in supplying the vaults of the treasury with all the funds made necessary by the exigencies of war. He served throughout the term of Mr. McKinley and was reappointed when Mr. McKinley entered upon his second term.

After leaving the cabinet in 1902 Mr. Gage became president of the United States Trust Company of New York. This position he resigned in 1906 and retired from active business life. He was three times elected president of the American Bankers' Association, twice president of the Civic Federation of Chicago, where he had much to do with bringing about a number of reforms in the civic administration of the city. He also served as trustee of the Carnegie Institution at Washington.

LESLIE MORTIMER SHAW

LESLIE MORTIMER SHAW—Secretary of the Treasury from February 1, 1902, to March 4, 1907. Born at Morristown, Vermont, November 3, 1848. Son of Boardman O. and Louisa (Spaulding) Shaw. Educated at Cornell University. Married, December 6, 1877, Miss Alice Cranshaw.

1898—Governor of Iowa.
1900—Governor of Iowa.
1902—Secretary of the Treasury.

After graduating from Cornell University and taking a course in law Mr. Shaw began the active practice of that profession at Dennison, Iowa. He became interested in other pursuits, among them being banking. In this latter he was very successful. He took great interest in political matters, both state and national, and in 1898 was elected governor of Iowa, and re-elected for a second term. His administration of that office brought him into national notice and when Lyman J. Gage resigned the office of Secretary of the Treasury President Roosevelt chose Governor Shaw as his successor. He was permanent chairman of the International Monetary Conference held in Indianapolis in 1908.

Among his activities since leaving public office may be mentioned: President of the Carnegie Trust Company of New York in 1907, president Mortgage Guarantee and Trust Company of Philadelphia, 1909-13.

GEORGE BRUCE CORTELYOU

GEORGE BRUCE CORTELYOU—Secretary of Commerce and Labor from February 16, 1903, to March 5, 1905; Postmaster General from March 6, 1905, to March 4, 1907; Secretary of the Treasury from March 4, 1907, to March 4, 1909. Born in New York, July 28, 1862. Son of Peter C. and Rose (Seary) Cortelyou. Educated at Hampstead, Long Island Institute and at the State Normal School at Westfield, Massachusetts. Married, September 15, 1898, Miss Lily Marie Hinds.

1893—Fourth Assistant Postmaster General.
1895—Stenographer for President Cleveland.
1896—Executive clerk of the President.
1902—Secretary of Commerce and Labor.
1905—Postmaster General.
1907—Secretary of the Treasury.

The story of the life of Mr. Cortelyou reads almost like a romance. It was a continued advance from the time he left the Normal School in 1882. He became a general law and verbatim reporter. In 1885, three years after leaving the Normal School, he became principal of preparatory schools of New York. This position he held for four years and then became stenographer in Washington, serving various public officials. He continued to advance and in 1893 was found in the position of

Fourth Assistant Postmaster General. From this position he became the confidential stenographer of President Cleveland and two years later was appointed executive clerk at the White House. When President McKinley entered upon the discharge of his duties he selected Mr. Cortelyou for the place of assistant private secretary and in 1898 he was made private secretary. In this place he was kept by President Roosevelt.

Congress having provided for the organization of a new department to be known as the Department of Commerce and Labor, President Roosevelt chose Mr. Cortelyou as the first Secretary of the new department. This was the second instance in our political history of a private secretary of a President being advanced to a cabinet position. The first was Daniel Lamont, private secretary of President Cleveland, made Secretary of War. A vacancy occurring in the head of the Postoffice Department Secretary Cortelyou was transferred to that department and two years later was made Secretary of the Treasury.

He entered upon his duties as head of the Department of the Treasury at a time when the country was suffering from a shortage of currency and many feared a financial panic would follow. To ease the money market Secretary Cortelyou recommended the sale of fifty million dollars of Panama Canal bonds, then held in the treasury, and also the issuance of a like amount of government certificates, a large part of the money thus obtained to be deposited in Western banks to help the crop movement. Financial confidence was soon restored and a panic averted.

After leaving the cabinet Mr. Cortelyou returned to New York and became the president of the Consolidated Gas Company of New York.

FRANKLIN MCVEAGH

FRANKLIN MCVEAGH—Secretary of the Treasury from March 5, 1909, to March 6, 1913. Born on a farm near Chester, Pennsylvania. Son of Major John and Margaret (Lincoln) McVeagh. Educated at Yale College and Columbia Law School. Married Miss Emily Eames.

1894—Unsuccessful candidate for the United States Senate.
1909—Secretary of the Treasury.

Mr. McVeagh is another example of the successful rise of a boy born and reared on a farm to a high position in the business world and in official life. Ambitious as a boy, and with a father who believed in education, young McVeagh graduated from the farm to Yale College, where he had a successful career as a student. His mind was first bent toward the law as a life vocation and after being graduated from Yale he took a course at Columbia Law School. He was admitted to the bar in 1864 and immediately began the practice of that profession.

Ill health finally compelled him to abandon the practice and he removed to Chicago and began a most successful business career as a wholesale grocer. A man of practical ideas, he soon became one of the most successful of the business men of that city. Taking great interest in municipal affairs, he gave much of his time in that direction while branching out in other lines of business activities, including manufacturing and banking enterprises.

He served for a time as president of the Charities and Municipal Art League of Chicago and was a member of the executive committee of the National Civic Federation and vice president of the American Civic Association. He was successful in bringing about a number of reforms in the administration of Chicago. In politics he was a Democrat and in 1894 was nominated by his party as its candidate for the United States Senate. He canvassed the state but, as the Republicans controlled the legislature, he was finally defeated; senators at that time being elected by the state legislatures. In 1896 his party declared in favor of free silver and Mr. McVeagh repudiated that issue and became a Republican.

When Mr. Taft became President he looked around for a successful business man to take the head of the Treasury Department, his choice finally falling upon Mr. McVeagh. His nomination was immediately confirmed by the Senate and he at once entered upon the discharge of the duties of that office. He was a master of details and a believer in the theory that "time is money," and that saving of time in the despatch of public business was a desirable matter. He found in the treasury building that bureaus and divisions having intimate business relations with each other were separated by long distances in the building requiring much time in their intercourse with each other. He remedied this by consolidations. He also introduced a number of labor-saving devices, the result being that there was not only an increase in the despatch of the business of the public but a great increase in the efficiency of the employees of the department.

WILLIAM GIBBS MCADOO

WILLIAM GIBBS MCADOO—Secretary of the Treasury from March 6, 1913, to December 25, 1918. Born near Marietta, Georgia, October 31, 1863. Son of William G. and Mary F. (Floyd) McAdoo. Married, November 18, 1885, Miss Sarah Hunter Fleming, at Chattanooga; May 7, 1914, Ellen Randolph Wilson, daughter of President Woodrow Wilson.

1913—Secretary of the Treasury.

The only public office held by Mr. McAdoo was that of Secretary of the Treasury in the cabinet of President Wilson. His father was a distinguished soldier and jurist and the son followed the father as a lawyer entering upon the practice in Chattanooga. He was born at a

time when the South was being ravaged by war and the bitterness of that struggle had not died away entirely when he began his professional career.

He was successful and in 1892 removed to New York, where a greater and more successful career was open to him. He did not confine himself wholly to the practice of his profession but entered upon vaster fields of enterprise. The Hudson River was an obstruction to the railway commerce of New York. He conceived the idea of tunneling that great stream. At first the project was derided by scientific engineers, but he clung to it tenaciously, finally organizing a company to undertake the gigantic work. Of this company he was made president and became its directing force.

This brought him in contact with men of large means and of enlarged ideas, and he became a marked figure in the business life of the city. His capacity as a directing head of great works and enterprises gave him a national fame. A Democrat from his early youth, a believer in the policies of that party, he advocated those policies when opportunity offered, but did not seek office. In 1912 he was a delegate to the Democratic National Convention at Baltimore and took an active part in pushing the candidacy of Woodrow Wilson. When Mr. Wilson was making up his cabinet he selected Mr. McAdoo for head of the Department of the Treasury. The leaders of his party were surprised and some of them angered at this selection, for prior to the meeting of the convention in 1912 Mr. McAdoo was wholly unknown in national politics.

The transportation facilities of the country for some years had been handicapped, and when Congress declared war against Germany it became necessary to place all transportation lines under one general management. His success as manager and director of great enterprises fitted Mr. McAdoo for this gigantic task. The President, without any hesitancy, selected him for the place. Everything was co-ordinated to the mobilization and movement of a great army with all its supplies, yet the movements of the natural commerce of the country were efficiently maintained. When the war ended Mr. McAdoo resigned this position and returned to the practice of his profession, removing to California.

By this time he had become very popular with his political party and in 1920 received warm and enthusiastic support for the presidential nomination, his support largely coming from the West. He fell short of a victory, but during the following four years his party kept him in view. When the Democratic Convention met in 1924 it was generally believed he would be an easy victor, and day after day his friends stood by him, giving him a larger vote than that received by any other candidate. Finally, worn out, the convention turned from the prominent aspirants and chose a candidate from among those who had held a minor place in the voting.

CARTER GLASS

CARTER GLASS—Secretary of the Treasury from December 16, 1918, to February 2, 1920. Born in Lynchburg, Virginia, January 4, 1858. Educated in private and public schools.

1899—Member Virginia Senate.
1901—Delegate to the Virginia Constitutional Convention.
1901—Representative in Congress.
1903—Representative in Congress.
1905—Representative in Congress.
1907—Representative in Congress.
1909—Representative in Congress.
1911—Representative in Congress.
1913—Representative in Congress.
1915—Representative in Congress.
1917—Representative in Congress.
1918—Secretary of the Treasury.
1919—Representative in Congress.
1920—Member of the United States Senate.

The career of Carter Glass has been one of arduous labor. For eight years he was connected with newspaper work in his native town, serving in almost every capacity until he became the owner of the leading paper. He early demonstrated his power as a writer on political subjects. A Democrat of the old school he consistently advocated the principles enunciated from time to time by the party in conventions. His first public office was as a member of the Virginia Senate. His election to that body preceded his election to the national House of Representatives by only one year.

It is said of him that for the first ten years of his service as a member of the national House of Representatives he did not make a speech. His first set speech gave him a national reputation as a finished orator. His topic was the monetary and banking system of the United States, and he was master of the subject. The banking system was just then undergoing a marked change, which resulted in the adoption of what is known as the "Federal Reserve System."

The World War coming on, Mr. Glass stood steadfast in support of the President and his war policy. He took the position that American citizens had a right to traverse the seas unmolested by those at war with each other, and in the House delivered a fiery denunciation of the proposal that Americans be warned from traveling at sea under their own flag.

He was long a member of the House Committee on Banking and Currency and was one of the leaders in putting through the House the bill establishing the Federal Reserve System. When Mr. McAdoo resigned as Secretary of the Treasury to become the head of the railroads and transportation lines of the country in order to mobilize them for the service of conveying troops and supplies to enable the United States to take its proper part in the war, the President's choice for his suc-

cessor naturally was Mr. Glass, for no member of the President's political party possessed a greater knowledge of the nation's financial resources.

He entered upon the discharge of his duties as head of the Department of the Treasury at a time when the resources of the country were to be severely taxed to meet the demands that would be made on the government in the struggle on which it had entered. Mr. Glass believed in the people and believed they would stand by the government to the last extremity, and full of this belief he had no fears of a failure in offering the bonds of the country on the market. His success in floating one after another of issues of Liberty Bonds was remarkable. Millions no longer sufficed for the public needs; billions were needed, and supplied. His success as Secretary of the Treasury classifies him among the greatest ministers of finance the world has known.

When a vacancy in the United States Senate occurred by the death of Senator Martin, the governor of Virginia offered the place to Mr. Glass. He accepted and resigned as head of the Treasury Department. He was subsequently elected for a full term. In 1924 he was a prominent candidate before the Democratic National Convention for the presidential nomination.

ANDREW WILLIAM MELLON

ANDREW WILLIAM MELLON—Secretary of the Treasury from March 4, 1921. Born in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, March 24, 1855. Son of Thomas and Sarah (Negley) Mellon. Educated under the instructions of his father, at the public schools of Pittsburgh and the University of Pittsburgh.

1921—Secretary of the Treasury.

After leaving college he engaged, with his brother, Richard B. Mellon, in the realty and lumber business in Allegheny county, Pennsylvania. He later became associated with his father in the private banking house of Thomas Mellon & Sons, Pittsburgh, and upon the retirement of Judge Thomas Mellon from active business in 1876, A. W. Mellon and R. B. Mellon assumed the personal management of the banking business, which later became the Mellon National Bank. In 1889 the Mellon brothers and their associates organized the Union Trust Company of Pittsburgh and subsequently organized the Union Savings Bank of that city.

Mr. Mellon and his brother, R. B. Mellon, in 1913, founded the Mellon Institute of Industrial Research at Pittsburgh, as a memorial to their father, with the late Robert Kennedy Duncan as its first director. This institute conducts skilled research and investigation into physical science and technology as an aid to industry. It is not a commercial venture and has for its sole object the benefit of American manufacturers through practical co-operation between industry and science.

A. W. Mellon

Mr. Mellon is closely allied with many public and charitable institutions. He is a trustee and chairman of the finance committee of the Carnegie Institute, and trustee and vice president of the Kingsley House and Tuberculosis League. During the World War he was a member of the executive committee in Pennsylvania of the Council of National Defense; a member of the national war work finance committee of the Red Cross; chairman of the war fund campaign committee for Western Pennsylvania; a member of the advisory committee of the National Research Council of Washington; a member of the National War Work Council of the Young Men's Christian Association, and chairman of the United War Work Campaign for Western Pennsylvania. Since 1893 he has been a trustee and chairman of the finance committee of the University of Pittsburgh. He has had conferred upon him the honorary degree of LL.D. from the University of Pittsburgh, Dartmouth and Rutgers colleges, Pennsylvania Military College, Columbia University, New York University and Princeton University.

On March 4, 1921, he became Secretary of the Treasury in the cabinet of the late President Harding. Before assuming office Mr. Mellon resigned as president of the Mellon National Bank of Pittsburgh and severed his connections with the many financial, commercial, and business concerns with which he was identified.

His long training and experience as a banker peculiarly fitted him for the work at the treasury, as was immediately demonstrated in his brilliant administration of that department during the difficult period of post-war financial and industrial readjustment. The main outlines of Secretary Mellon's policy have been, first of all, to keep the country's finances in order by maintaining the gold standard unimpaired and by balancing the budget, ordinary receipts against ordinary expenditures; second, by carrying out a reasonable program for the gradual liquidation and orderly funding of the war debt; and third, by reducing expenditures and lowering taxes as much as circumstances will permit.

At the beginning of his administration the treasury was faced with the problem of reducing expenditures and at the same time meeting the fast-approaching maturities of the public debt. When Mr. Mellon assumed office the cost of running the government for the preceding fiscal year (1920) had amounted to six billion four hundred and eighty-two million dollars, and obligations in the sum of seven billion five hundred million dollars were maturing within two and a half years. At the end of three years of his administration of the treasury the annual budget had been reduced to three billion five hundred and six million dollars, the seven billion five hundred million dollars of the short-dated debt had been either retired or refunded into more manageable maturities and the public debt had been reduced by about two billion eight hundred million dollars. As the debt had been paid off the interest charges had become less, thus effecting a saving each year in expenditures.

Secretary Mellon proceeded on the theory that high taxes increase the cost of living and that, so far as the condition of the treasury permits, taxes should be reduced and the cost of living lowered. He repeatedly pointed out that reductions in taxes are dependent on reductions in expenditures and that, with the utmost economy in government, it is not possible to reduce taxes below the amounts required to meet the fixed obligations of the government, such as payment of interest on the public debt. For these reasons he exerted the utmost efforts to reduce the debt and at the same time to lower taxes so far as might be warranted by the condition of the revenues.

In November, 1923, he called to the attention of Congress, in a letter to the chairman of the Committe on Ways and Means, the need for tax reduction out of surplus revenues and presented a comprehensive and well-balanced program for tax reform which would grant relief from the most burdensome and least productive taxes. This program, which was known as "The Mellon Plan," evoked an unprecedented amount of discussion throughout the country on the subject of taxation. It was subsequently enacted, in part, into law, causing sweeping reductions in taxes but without some of the reforms which Mr. Mellon sought to introduce into the tax system. As a result of this reduction of taxes under the Revenue Act of 1924, the taxpayers' bill was reduced by more than four hundred million dollars annually over the amount which would have been collected if the 1921 rates had remained in force.

Secretary Mellon's administration of the treasury has been most frequently compared with that of the treasury's first great Secretary, Alexander Hamilton, for whom Mr. Mellon had a great admiration. Secretary Mellon took pride in the fact that the treasury was operated under his administration along the lines laid down by Alexander Hamilton. "The treasury," said Secretary Mellon in one of his recent utterances, "is following strictly in the Hamilton tradition of keeping expenditures within its income and discharging the public debt as rapidly as circumstances will permit." During the discussion of his tax plan Secretary Mellon embodied his ideas in a book entitled "Taxation: The People's Business," which brings out clearly not only the similarity in ideas but the continuity in policy of the first and latest Secretary of the Treasury.

JOHN C. CALHOUN

WILLIAM L. MARCY

EDWIN M. STANTON

WILLIAM H. TAFT

NEWTON DIEL BAKER

The Department of War

The War for Independence had been going on for nearly two years before an attempt was made to organize a Department of War. On June 12, 1776, only a few weeks before the Declaration of Independence was adopted, the Continental Congress resolved "that a committee be appointed by the name of the Board of War and Ordnance, to consist of five members." John Adams, Roger Sherman, Benjamin Harrison, James Wilson and Edward Rutledge were chosen to compose this first Board of War. Ample powers were given the board. Hitherto the committees appointed by Congress were largely restricted in their powers, being more in the nature of investigators to examine and report to Congress than committees exercising powers and authority.

Among the duties assigned to this board was that of keeping an account of all the artillery and military stores and superintending the raising and equipping of troops. In October, 1777, a new board was authorized, to consist of three persons not members of Congress. General Thomas Mifflin, Colonel Timothy Pickering and Colonel Robert H. Harrison were chosen for this new board. Of these, Timothy Pickering was afterward Secretary of War for a time in the second administration of President Washington. A few weeks after the organization of this board a seal was adopted. The seal had for its device a group of military trophies, with the Phrygian cap, the emblem of freedom, between a spear and a musket. Over this was a serpent. Beneath the trophies was the date, MDCCLXXVIII. Around the seal were the words "Board of War and Ordnance, United States of America." This was the origin of the seal now used by the War Department, which still bears the same device. The date is omitted and within the curve of the serpent are the words "This We'll Defend" and around the seal is the legend "United States of America, War Office."

Not long after the adoption of the seal General Horatio Gates was added to the board and made its president. In November, 1788, the organization of the board was again changed and was made to consist of two members of Congress and three persons not members. On February 7, 1781, another change was made. Congress resolved "that there be a Superintendent of Finance, a Secretary of War and a Secretary

of Marine." The Secretary of War was given the same powers and charged with the same duties as had been exercised by the Board of War.

It was not until October 30 of that year a Secretary of War was named. The choice fell upon General Benjamin Lincoln. He carried into the office a thorough practical knowledge of military affairs. General Lincoln held the office until the end of the war and the departure of the British from the colonies. The army was disbanded, only about seven hundred being retained, and there was little for a Secretary of War to do. In a few months nearly all of the seven hundred men were discharged; twenty-five were retained to guard the stores at Pittsburgh and fifty-five for similar duty at West Point. The ranking officer was a captain. From that reduction the office of Secretary of War remained vacant until the organization of the government under the Constitution, when Congress created an Executive Department of War.

The War Department, as now constituted, was the second of the executive departments to be created under the Constitution. It was created by act of Congress approved August 7, 1789. The act provided that there should be an executive department to be called the Department of War, under the charge of a principal officer to be styled "The Secretary of War." As such Secretary, or principal officer, he was to perform such duties as the President might enjoin upon him, agreeably to the Constitution, relative to military commissions or to the land or naval forces, ships or warlike stores of the United States, or relative to the granting of lands to persons entitled thereto for military services rendered to the United States, or relative to Indian affairs. He was to conduct the business of his department in such manner as the President should from time to time order or instruct.

The act also provided for the appointment of a chief clerk, who, in case of a vacancy in the office of Secretary, was to have the custody of all records, books and papers appertaining to the department.

All records and control over naval affairs were transferred from the War Department by an act of Congress approved April 30, 1798, creating a new executive department to be called the Department of the Navy. All matters pertaining to Indian affairs and to the payment of pensions were transferred from the Department of War to the "Home Department," now called the Interior Department, by act of Congress approved March 3, 1849.

For many years the Secretary of the Department of War was not allowed an assistant secretary, as were the secretaries of the other executive departments, but in case of his absence from the seat of government, or when there was a vacancy in the office of Secretary, the commander-in-chief of the army, for the time being, acted as secretary *ad interim*. By an act of Congress approved May 8, 1792, the President was authorized to designate someone to act, in case of absence or

a vacancy, or when from any cause the Secretary could not perform the duties of the office. By an act approved February 13, 1795, these *ad interim* appointments were limited to a period of six months. By act approved March 4, 1874, the Secretary of War was given the authority to authorize the chief clerk of the department to sign requisitions on the treasury and other papers requiring the signature of the Secretary during any temporary absence of the Secretary. The appropriation act for the year 1883 contained a clause authorizing the President, under certain circumstances, to direct the commanding general of the army, or the chief of any military bureau, to perform the duties of Secretary of War.

By an act passed over the President's veto in 1866 it was provided that the appointment of a Secretary of War and the other heads of executive departments should be for the term of the President making the appointment and for a period of one month thereafter.

For many years there was constant friction between the department and the commander-in-chief of the army. At one time this friction grew so acute that General Winfield Scott, who was commander-in-chief, removed the headquarters of the army to New York. A removal of headquarters occurred when General William T. Sherman was in command. This time the headquarters went to St. Louis, Missouri. On the retirement of Lieutenant General Miles the office of commander-in-chief was discontinued. Under the present system an officer is detailed to act as chief of staff, thus becoming a part of the department force.

The salary of the Secretary of War was for thirty years $500 less than that of the Secretary of State and Secretary of the Treasury, being $3,000 in 1789 and $4,000 in 1799. In 1819 the salaries of the four secretaries were made equal and have so remained.

The military academy at West Point, New York, is under the supervision of the War Department. It was established in 1802. At first provision was made only for ten cadets, but in 1812 Congress authorized the number to be increased to two hundred and fifty. The present corps of cadets consists of one for each congressional district, one from each territory, one from the District of Columbia and ten at large.

The insular possessions, Porto Rico, Hawaii and the Philippine Islands, are under the supervision of the War Department, as is the Panama Canal Zone.

Following the close of the World War the attention of military authorities were turned toward aviation believing that much of future wars is to be fought out in the air. During the administration of Secretary Weeks to demonstrate the future usefulness of air crafts, it was determined to attempt to circle the earth. The attempt was magnificently successful, the aviators making a complete circle and returning in good health and spirits. To appropriately commemorate the event Congress was asked to give to each a medal of honor and ten thousand dollars in cash. The successful navigators of the air were: Captain

Lovell H. Smith, Lieutenant Leigh Wade, Lieutenant Eric Nelson and Lieutenant Leslie B. Arnold. They were accompanied by John Harding, civilian mechanic, and Technical Sergeant Henry H. Ogden.

Since its organization the Department of War has carried the country through five wars—with Great Britain in 1812, with Mexico in 1846, the Civil War in 1861, with Spain in 1899, and the World War in 1917. In the main the department proved itself equal to the emergencies. It is true that in the war with Great Britain the department at first wholly failed to do its part, and it was not until James Monroe, Secretary of State, was transferred and put at the head of the Department of War any real energy and practical usefulness was displayed. Mr. Monroe was indeed a master hand at organization and in arousing the patriotism of the people. Under his management the army was speedily recruited to a strength to meet the enemy, supplied with all that was needed and placed under competent officers. Victory then began to perch on the American banners. Much of this, in part, may be said of the department at the opening of the Civil War and also that with Spain. American statesmen have always been found in time of need, capable of leading the country under all trying circumstances and conditions.

Roster of Secretaries of War

Henry Knox, of Massachusetts.
From September 12, 1789, to December 31, 1794.

Timothy Pickering, of Pennsylvania.
From January 2, 1795, to December 10, 1795 (*see* Department of State).

James McHenry, of Maryland.
From February 6, 1796, to May 31, 1800.

Samuel Dexter, of Massachusetts.
From June 12, 1800, to January 1, 1801.

Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts.
From March 5, 1801, to February 16, 1809.

William Eustis, of Massachusetts.
From April 8, 1809, to December 31, 1812.

John Armstrong, of New York.
From February 5, 1813, to August 30, 1814.

James Monroe, of Virginia.
From October 1, 1814, to February 28, 1815 (*see* Department of State).

William H. Crawford, of Georgia.
From August 8, 1815, to October 21, 1816 (*see* Department of the Treasury).

John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina.
From December 10, 1817, to March 3, 1825.

James Barbour, of Virginia.
From March 7, 1825, to May 24, 1828.

Peter B. Porter, of New York.
From June 21, 1828, to March 3, 1829.

John H. Eaton, of Tennessee.
From March 9, 1829, to June 18, 1821.

Lewis Cass, of Michigan.
From August 8, 1831, to October 4, 1836.

Benjamin F. Butler, of New York.
From March 3, 1837, to March 13, 1837 (*see* Department of Justice).

JOEL R. POINSETT, of South Carolina.
From March 14, 1837, to March 3, 1841.

JOHN BELL, of Tennessee.
From March 6, 1841, to September 11, 1841.

JOHN C. SPENCER, of New York.
From October 12, 1841, to March 7, 1843.

JAMES M. PORTER, of Pennsylvania.
From March 8, 1843, to February 19, 1844; rejected.

WILLIAM WILKINS, of Pennsylvania.
From February 20, 1844, to March 7, 1845.

WILLIAM L. MARCY, of New York.
From March 8, 1845, to March 7, 1849 (*see* Department of State).

GEORGE W. CRAWFORD, of Georgia.
From March 14, 1849, to July 22, 1850.

CHARLES M. CONRAD, of Louisiana.
From August 16, 1850, to March 7, 1853.

JEFFERSON DAVIS, of Mississippi.
From March 8, 1853, to March 3, 1857.

JOHN B. FLOYD, of Virginia.
From March 7, 1857, to December 31, 1860.

JOSEPH HOLT, of Kentucky.
From January 18, 1861, to March 10, 1861 (*see* Department of Justice).

SIMON CAMERON, of Pennsylvania.
From March 11, 1861, to January 19, 1862.

EDWIN M. STANTON, of Pennsylvania.
From January 20, 1862, to May 28, 1868.

JOHN M. SCHOFIELD, Army.
From June 1, 1868, to March 12, 1869.

JOHN A. RAWLINS, of Illinois.
From March 12, 1869, to September 6, 1869.

WILLIAM W. BELKNAP, of Iowa.
From November 1, 1869, to March 3, 1876.

ALPHONSO TAFT, of Ohio.
From March 11, 1876, to May 31, 1876.

JAMES D. CAMERON, of Pennsylvania.
From June 1, 1876, to March 11, 1877.

GEORGE W. MCCRARY, of Iowa.
From March 12, 1877, to December 11, 1879.

ALEXANDER RAMSEY, of Minnesota.
From December 12, 1879, to March 10, 1881.

ROBERT T. LINCOLN, of Illinois.
From March 11, 1881, to March 6, 1885.

WILLIAM C. ENDICOTT, of Massachusetts.
From March 7, 1885, to March 5, 1889.

REDFIELD PROCTOR, of Vermont.
From March 6, 1889, to December 5, 1891.

STEPHEN B. ELKINS, of West Virginia.
From December 24, 1891, to March 6, 1893.

DANIEL S. LAMONT, of New York.
From March 7, 1893, to March 5, 1897.

RUSSELL A. ALGER, of Michigan.
From March 6, 1897, to August 1, 1899.

ELIHU ROOT, of New York.
From August 1, 1899, to January 30, 1904 (*see* Department of State).

WILLIAM H. TAFT, of Ohio.
From February 1, 1904, to June 29, 1908.

LUKE E. WRIGHT, of Tennessee.
From June 29, 1908, to March 4, 1909.

JACOB M. DICKINSON, of Tennessee.
From March 5, 1909, to May 10, 1911.

HENRY L. STIMSON, of New York.
From May 16, 1911, to March 4, 1913.

LINDLEY MILLER GARRISON, of New Jersey.
From March 5, 1913, to February 10, 1916.

NEWTON DIEL BAKER, of Ohio.
From March 7, 1916, to March 5, 1921.

JOHN WINGATE WEEKS, of Massachusetts.
From March 5, 1921.

John Marshall, of Virginia, was nominated for Secretary of War by President John Adams, May 7, 1800. The appointment was declined. Lucius H. Stockton, of New Jersey, was nominated by President

Adams as Secretary of War January 14, 1801, but the nomination was withdrawn by request of Mr. Stockton.

Roger Griswold, of Connecticut, was nominated and confirmed as Secretary of War, February 3, 1801, but declined.

Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, was nominated by President Madison for Secretary of War, March 1, 1815, but the nomination was withdrawn the next day.

Isaac Shelby, of Kentucky, was nominated by President Monroe for Secretary of War, March 5, 1817. The nomination was confirmed but declined.

In commissioning Benjamin F. Butler, of New York, who had been nominated and confirmed as Secretary of War, President Jackson caused the commission to read: "During the pleasure of the President, until a successor, duly appointed, shall accept such office and enter upon the duties thereof."

John McLean, of Ohio, was nominated, confirmed and commissioned as Secretary of War in September, 1841, by President Tyler, but the office was declined.

Edward Bates, of Missouri, was nominated by President Fillmore, July 20, 1850, for Secretary of War. The nomination was confirmed the same day but the office declined.

Thomas Ewing, Sr., of Ohio, was nominated for Secretary of War by President Johnson, February 22, 1868, but was not acted upon by the Senate.

John A. Rawlins, Secretary of War, died in office.

William W. Belknap, Secretary of War, was impeached but acquitted.

Biographies of Secretaries of War

Henry Knox

Henry Knox—Secretary of War from September 12, 1789, to December 31, 1794. Born in Boston, Massachusetts, July 25, 1750. Son of William and Mary (Campbell) Knox. Educated in the schools of Boston. Married, June 18, 1784, Miss Lucy Flucker. Died at Thomaston, Maine, October 22, 1806.

1775—Colonel of Artillery in Continental Army.
1776—Brigadier General in Continental Army.
1783—Major General in Continental Army.
1785—Secretary of War by Congress.
1789—Secretary of War.

Henry Knox was one of the distinguished patriots who led the armies of the colonies in resistance to Great Britain, and was always considered one of the ablest of the continental generals. He was born in Boston, Massachusetts, of Scotch parentage. He was the seventh of ten sons born to his parents, who were in moderate circumstances only. In early youth he became a clerk in a bookstore and, having the opportunity and a taste in that direction, read much on military subjects, and at the age of eighteen became a member of a volunteer military company.

On arriving at the age of twenty-one he began business for himself as a bookseller. It was not long until his store became the favorite resort of the younger element, as the troubles with Great Britain were engrossing public attention. A year before the breaking out of actual hostilities Mr. Knox married the daughter of the secretary of the province. This was much against the wishes of the young lady's father, but she had determined to cast in her lot with the young patriotic merchant and nothing would deter her. Mr. Knox had already become known as one of the active leaders in the cause of the colonies, while the secretary was firm in his adherence to the king and Parliament.

When the differences were approaching the point of actual war the patriots began active movements to secure all the arms and ammunition possible. One of the volunteer military companies of Boston had three fine brass cannon. These guns had been cast in England from two old guns sent over by the General Court of Massachusetts. Paddock, the captain of the company, was known to be an ardent Tory. At the breaking out of the revolution the guns were stored in a gunhouse surrounded by a high board fence. A sentry was kept at the door. General Gage, the British commander in Boston, expressed an intention of seizing all the arms of the militia of Boston. It was suspected that Captain Paddock was more than willing to surrender the

guns of his company. Mr. Knox, together with five other young patriots, determined to seize and conceal the three cannon. Taking advantage of a temporary absence of the sentinel they hastily took the guns from their carriages and so securely concealed them that Captain Paddock was unable to discover the place of concealment. They were, subsequently, secretly conveyed to the American army then besieging Boston. When General Knox was Secretary of War he had two of the guns suitably inscribed to indicate their origin. In the course of time the guns were taken to the chamber at the top of Bunker Hill monu ment, where they remain.

Mr. Knox was desirous of joining the army besieging Boston, but his departure was interdicted by General Gage. This did not deter the young patriot and Mr. Knox and his bride contrived to leave Boston secretly, the wife carrying her husband's sword quilted into the lining of her cloak. Hastening to the headquarters of General Ward he made such a report of the condition of affairs and of the feasibility of attacking Boston from Bunker Hill that the orders were issued which brought on that famous battle.

Soon after General Washington joined the army at Cambridge he sent Mr. Knox to Ticonderoga to bring away for the use of the army a large part of the artillery that had been captured there by Ethan Allen. This task he successfully accomplished, displaying great energy and resource. His plan was to take advantage of the snow and ice. Cannon had to be procured or the siege of Boston would fail, and this called for putting forth all his powers. The guns were taken from their carriages and placed on sleds constructed for the purpose. The sleds were drawn over the snow and ice, much of that labor being performed by volunteers. His arrival at the camp in front of Boston, with his large train of guns and an ample supply of artillery ammunition, was a notable event. On November 17, 1775, while he was engaged on this mission to Ticonderoga Congress appointed him a colonel of artillery and gave him command of its only artillery regiment. He found this commission waiting for him at headquarters on his return.

He took an active part in all the campaigns of Washington's army, including the battles of Trenton, Princeton, Brandywine and Germantown, always with distinguished gallantry and efficiency, receiving the constant commendations of Generals Washington and Greene. It was Colonel Knox who superintended the crossing of the Delaware by Washington's army. In 1776 he was made a brigadier general. The service and the patriot cause came near losing this able officer by the unauthorized action of Silas Deane, minister to France. Deane was filled with the idea of interesting trained officers of Europe to embark in the cause of the colonies. To do this he scattered right and left promises of high commissions in the patriot army. Among others to whom such promises were given was a French artillery officer by the

name of Ducoudray, who was promised a commission as major general with the command of all the artillery. When General Knox learned of the arrival in this country of Ducoudray he at once notified Congress he would not serve under the Frenchman and, if he were placed in command, would at once resign. The affair caused much trouble to both Congress and General Washington, but the matter was finally adjusted by the French officer being appointed inspector general. Soon after his appointment as inspector general Ducoudray was drowned while crossing the Schuylkill River.

General Knox was not only an able artillery officer but was skilled in engineering, and projected many of the defensive works constructed by the army under General Washington. His efficiency was specially demonstrated in the campaign against Yorktown. His activity and skill in collecting and forwarding artillery for use in the siege caused General Washington to report to Congress that "the resources of his genius supplied the deficiency of means." One of the French officers who was present during the siege wrote of General Knox: "We cannot sufficiently admire the intelligence and activity with which he collected from different places and transported to the batteries more than thirty pieces of cannon and mortars of large caliber." The accuracy of the artillery fire under his direction surprised the British as well as the French officers with the American army. For his services in the Yorktown campaign he was made a major general.

In 1782 he was appointed by General Washington to the command of West Point, and at once, with great energy and intelligence, set about the work of strengthening the works at that strategic point. While he was in command at West Point he organized the Society of the Cincinnati. When General Washington departed from the army to proceed to Annapolis to surrender his commission to Congress, he left General Knox in command of the army, who began the delicate task of disbanding it in 1783. On November 20 of that year the British evacuated New York, and General Knox at the head of the army marched in and took possession of the city.

In March, 1785, Congress appointed General Knox Secretary of War, which office he held at the time of the formation of the new government under the Constitution in 1789. It was through his advocacy, while Secretary of War under the Continental Congress, the arsenal at Springfield, Massachusetts, was finally established. When General Washington became President he requested General Knox to continue to act as Secretary of War, and when, by act of Congress, approved August 7, 1789, the Department of War was established, President Washington promptly nominated General Knox as its head. Of his fitness for this position John Marshall, afterward Chief Justice, said: "To his past services and an unquestioned integrity he was admitted to unite a sound understanding; and the public judgment as well as that

of the chief magistrate pronounced him in all respects competent to the station he filled."

As Secretary of War Mr. Knox early and energetically urged the establishment of a military school at West Point. In 1786, while acting under the appointment of Congress, he presented to that body an elaborate plan for the organization of the militia of the country, which, however, in its entirety did not meet the approval of Congress. After becoming the head of the new War Department he again urged energetic steps toward putting the militia into a state of efficiency. The Indian situation demanded largely of his time and attention. He was persistent in urging the importance of treating the tribes with absolute justice and impartiality. The navy, too, at that time under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of War, demanded much attention and Secretary Knox was mainly instrumental in inducing Congress to establish an efficient navy.

Secretary Knox at one time had a serious contention with Colonel Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury. Secretary Hamilton insisted that all supplies for the army and navy should be purchased through the Treasury Department. To this General Knox refused to consent. At first President Washington sided with the Secretary of the Treasury, but later found so much confusion resulting that the authority to make purchases was again placed wholly under the War Department.

On November 28, 1794, owing to the fact that the salary of the office was not large enough to meet his increasing expenses, Secretary Knox tendered his resignation. On leaving the cabinet he applied himself to the cultivation of a large tract of land in the then District of Maine that had come to his wife from the estate of her grandfather. On this he built an elegant mansion and entertained many distinguished foreigners, among them being Talleyrand and Louis Phillipe. He also entered largely into manufacturing enterprises.

When a war with France was expected and Congress had empowered the President to increase the army, President Adams named Mr. Knox as one of the three new major generals provided for in the act of Congress, but he declined to serve, because Mr. Hamilton was made the senior in rank.

General Knox's death was caused by his swallowing a chicken bone, which penetrated his intestine.

JAMES MCHENRY

JAMES MCHENRY—Secretary of War from February 6, 1796, to May 31, 1800. Born in county Antrim, Ireland, November 16, 1753. Son of Daniel and Agnes McHenry. Educated at Dublin, Ireland. Married, January 5, 1784, Margaret Caldwell. Died in Baltimore, Maryland, May 3, 1816.

1776—Surgeon in the Continental Army.
1779—Secretary to General Washington.
1780—On the Staff of General Lafayette.
1781—Member of the Maryland Legislature.
1787—Delegate to the Constitutional Convention.
1789—Member of the Maryland Legislature.
1796—Secretary of War.

In 1771, only a few years before the outbreak of the Revolutionary War, there landed in Philadelphia, from over the seas, a young Irishman who later played an important part in the early history of the Republic. James McHenry received a liberal education in Dublin, and for some time studied law, expecting to become a member of the Irish bar. The fever of emigration seized on him, as it did on many others of the young sons of Ireland, and in 1771 he sailed for America.

In the meantime his attention was turned from the law to the profession of medicine, and at Philadelphia he became one of the students of the eminent physician and surgeon, Benjamin Rush. He had hardly fitted himself for the practice of the profession when the War for Independence broke out. He at once tendered his services to the governor of Pennsylvania and was appointed surgeon of the fifth Pennsylvania battalion in 1776. In November of that year he was taken prisoner at Fort Washington. In a few months he was released on parole and was finally exchanged in 1778.

After rejoining the army he attracted the attention of General Washington who made him one of his secretaries, and for some months Mr. McHenry held the closest relations with the commander-in-chief, possessing his entire confidence. In 1780 he was transferred to the staff of General Lafayette, with the rank of major. In 1781 he was elected a member of the Maryland Legislature and continued a member of that body until 1786, although during the last three years of the time he also served as a delegate to the Continental Congress. In 1787 he was sent as a delegate to the convention called to meet in Philadelphia to frame a new constitution. Major McHenry took little part in the debates of the convention, but gave the new constitution his ardent support and exercised a large influence in securing its ratification by the people of Maryland.

When President Washington transferred Timothy Pickering from the War to the State Department he nominated Major McHenry to succeed him as Secretary of War. He was nominated on January 26, 1796, and confirmed and commissioned on the next day, entering upon the discharge of the duties of the office on February 6.

As Secretary of War he quickly placed the country in readiness for war, which was threatened with both England and France. As Secretary of War, he had jurisdiction of the navy and he was successful in constructing several new frigates, and on land he caused the building

and equipping of several armories and arsenals, displaying great energy. He was a strong advocate of the establishment of an academy for the instruction and education of officers for the army that had been suggested by his predecessor. He selected West Point as the site of the academy and submitted an elaborate plan for the buildings and the course of instruction.

When the quasi war with France came, during the administration of President John Adams, who had retained Mr. McHenry as Secretary of War, the efficiency of the navy under his energetic management was quickly seen. He was also energetic in recruiting the new regiments for the army and very strongly urged the appointment of Alexander Hamilton as second in command to General Washington.

On May 6, 1800, he tendered his resignation to take effect June 1. This was at the request of President Adams, who was reconstructing his cabinet. The resignation of Secretary McHenry was not asked for on any ground of dissatisfaction with his administration of his department, but was owing to his close relations with Alexander Hamilton, who was endeavoring to bring about the defeat of President Adams who was seeking a re-election.

Retiring from the cabinet Mr. McHenry returned to Baltimore, where he held his place as one of the leading citizens. Fort McHenry, that repulsed the British in 1814, was named after the Secretary.

SAMUEL DEXTER

SAMUEL DEXTER—Secretary of War from June 12, 1800, to January 1, 1801; Secretary of the Treasury from January 1, 1801, to May 6, 1801. Born in Boston, Massachusetts, May 14, 1761. Son of Samuel Dexter. Educated at Harvard College. Married Miss Gordon. Died at Athens, New York, May 3, 1816.

1788—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1793—Member national House of Representatives.
1799—United States Senator.
1800—Secretary of War.
1801—Secretary of the Treasury.

The Dexter family was one of the best known families of the early days of New England. The father of the future senator and cabinet minister was an eminent merchant of Boston, who was active in his support of the cause of the colonies during the War for Independence. He was able to give his son an excellent education, sending him to Harvard College, where he graduated in 1781. The young man immediately after his graduation began the study of law in the office of Levi Lincoln, then one of the ablest lawyers of New England.

Mr. Dexter was admitted to the bar in 1784, and soon commanded an extensive practice. He was an ardent Federalist in politics and, taking an active interest in public affairs, was elected to the Massachusetts Legislature in 1788 and again in 1790. Three years later he was

elected to Congress as a warm supporter of the administration of President Washington. He early became recognized as one of the strongest debaters among the Federalists in the House. In 1799 he was transferred to the Senate, but resigned in 1800 to accept the place of Secretary of War in the cabinet of President John Adams.

During the closing months of his administration President Adams had much difficulty with his cabinet and practically reconstructed it. From the beginning of his administration most of the members of the cabinet were under the influence of Alexander Hamilton, who, as leader of the Federalists, was strongly opposed to President Adams and sought to defeat him for re-election. Senator Dexter was an ardent Federalist, but would not follow Mr. Hamilton in his efforts to overthrow the President. In reconstructing his cabinet President Adams desired John Marshall, of Virginia, for Secretary of War, but Mr. Marshall declined. The choice then fell upon Senator Dexter and he resigned his seat in the Senate. He was nominated, confirmed and commissioned May 13, 1800, but did not assume the duties of the office until June 12.

He served but six months as the head of the War Department and little was accomplished under his administration. In December, 1800, Mr. Wolcott resigned the treasury portfolio and Mr. Dexter was transferred to the Department of the Treasury, taking the office on January 1, 1801, and served during the last three months of the administration of President Adams. During the same time he acted as *ad interim* Secretary of War. John Marshall, Secretary of State, was appointed and confirmed as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, but the President, desiring to have him continue to act as head of the State Department and regarding that it would not be proper to have Mr. Marshall as Secretary of State attest his own commission as Chief Justice, requested Secretary Dexter "to execute the office of Secretary of State so far as to affix the seal of the United States to the enclosed commission to the present Secretary of State, John Marshall, of Virginia, to be Chief Justice of the United States, and to certify in your own name on the commission as executing the office of Secretary of State *pro hac vice*."

When Mr. Jefferson became President he desired to appoint Albert Gallatin, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Treasury, but there were doubts of the Senate confirming the nomination, so Mr. Jefferson requested Mr. Dexter to retain the office for a time, which he did, serving until May 6, 1801. The special session of the Senate having adjourned, Mr. Dexter resigned and Mr. Gallatin was given a recess appointment.

Retiring to private life Mr. Dexter resumed the practice of his profession, being retained in many of the important cases before the Supreme Court of the United States. Supporting the policy of President Madison in the war with Great Britain, Mr. Dexter withdrew from the

Federalist party. In 1816 he was nominated for governor of Massachusetts, but was defeated at the polls because of his strong opposition to the Hartford convention. President Madison had previously tendered him the appointment as minister to Spain, but the tender was declined.

HENRY DEARBORN

HENRY DEARBORN—Secretary of War from March 5, 1801, to February 16, 1809. Born at North Hampton, New Hampshire, February 23, 1751. Educated in the common schools. Died at Roxbury, Massachusetts, June 6, 1829.

1775—Captain in the Continental Army.
1777—Major in the Continental Army.
1781—Deputy Quartermaster General on staff of General Washington.
1789—United States Marshal for the District of Maine.
1793—Member national House of Representatives.
1801—Secretary of War.
1809—Collector of the Port of Boston.
1812—Major General in regular army.
1822—Minister to Portugal.

The ancestors of Henry Dearborn were among the earliest settlers of New Hampshire. They had come from England to the new world, settling in New Hampshire. Several of them at different times occupied prominent official positions in the colony. Henry was born on February 23, 1751, at North Hampton. His education was received at the common schools. He chose the profession of medicine and began his studies. It is not known whether he ever actively practiced his profession or not.

He took an active interest in the affairs of the colonies and was an ardent patriot. On the morning of April 25, 1775, he received information of the battle of Lexington that had been fought on the previous day, and with sixty companions marched hastily to Cambridge, making the distance of fifty-five miles in less than twenty-four hours. At Cambridge he was appointed captain of a company in the first New Hampshire regiment under command of Colonel John Stark. With his company and regiment he took part in the battle of Bunker Hill, behaving with great gallantry, covering the retreat of the American army.

When it was determined to send an expedition into Canada under General Arnold, Captain Dearborn and his company were assigned as part of the expeditionary force. On the march he was stricken down with fever and was left in a hut on the Chaudierre, with a single soldier to care for him. To the astonishment of his fellow-officers he recovered and rejoined the army before Quebec and took part in the storming of that city, where he was captured by the British. In May, 1776, he was permitted to return to the United States on parole, and in the following March was exchanged.

He was appointed major of the third New Hampshire regiment then with the army under General Gates. Major McHenry was given command of five full companies and operated with General Daniel Morgan,

taking part in the battles of Stillwater and Saratoga. Later he also took part in the battles of Monmouth and Newton. In 1781 he was promoted to a colonelcy and joined the staff of General Washington as deputy quartermaster general, and was with General Washington at Yorktown.

In June, 1784, he removed to the district of Maine, where, in 1787, he was appointed brigadier general of militia, being made major general two years later. When General Washington became President, in 1789, he appointed General Dearborn United States marshal for the district of Maine. General Dearborn was at first a Federalist in politics, but finally became a follower of Mr. Jefferson, and as a Republican was elected to Congress in 1793 and re-elected in 1795. He became one of the most ardent partisans of Mr. Jefferson and strongly opposed the ratification of the Jay Treaty.

He took part, with Mr. Giles, of Virginia, and others, in opposing most of the measures proposed by the Washington administration. He retired from Congress at the close of his second term. In 1800 he was one of the leaders of those in New England who favored the election of Mr. Jefferson as President.

In 1801 President Jefferson sent the name of General Dearborn to the Senate as Secretary of War on March 5. His nomination was confirmed on the same day and he at once entered upon the discharge of his new duties. He served through the two terms of President Jefferson. As Secretary of War he fitted out the exploring expedition of Lewis and Clark in 1804. Under the administration of President Jefferson the Secretary of War had an easy time of it, as the President was a man of peace, disliking a regular army, and so reduced the army that it consisted only of a small force on the Western frontier.

Shortly after General Dearborn retired from the War Department, in 1809, President Madison appointed him collector of the port of Boston, a position he held until January, 1812, when the army was reorganized in expectation of war with Great Britain. Under this reorganization he was made senior major general and given command on the Canadian border. His campaign proved to be a miserable failure, owing partly to the interference of the Secretary of War and partly to the conflict of authority in the army. In 1813 he was recalled from the command in the field and placed in command of the city of New York, a place of little responsibility.

On March 1, 1815, President Madison nominated General Dearborn to be Secretary of War, but his failure as commander of the army was so recent that the Senate promptly rejected the nomination. Later the Senate consented to erase the rejection from the *Journal* on the promise of the President to withdraw the nomination, which was done.

In May, 1822, President Monroe appointed General Dearborn minister to Portugal. He served until 1824, when he was recalled at his own request.

WILLIAM EUSTIS

WILLIAM EUSTIS—Secretary of War from April 8, 1809, to December 31, 1812. Born at Cambridge, Massachusetts, June 10, 1753. Son of Benjamin Eustis. Educated at Harvard College. Married, in 1801, Caroline Langdon. Died at Boston, Massachusetts, February 6, 1825.

1788—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1801—Member national House of Representatives.
1809—Secretary of War.
1814—Minister to the Netherlands.
1821—Member of the national House of Representatives.
1825—Governor of Massachusetts.

William Eustis graduated from Harvard College in 1772 and devoted himself to the study of medicine, his father being one of the most distinguished physicians and surgeons of Boston. Young Eustis studied in the office of Dr. Joseph Warren, the hero of Bunker Hill. He was just ready for the practice of his profession when hostilities broke out between the colonies and the mother country. Dr. Eustis at once tendered his services to the governor of Massachusetts and was appointed surgeon of a regiment in the field. Later he was assigned to duty in charge of a hospital and served in that capacity throughout the war.

At the close of the war he returned to Boston to practice his profession. In 1786 and 1787 he was again in the service as a surgeon in the expedition for the suppression of Shay's rebellion. From 1788 to 1794 he was a member of the Massachusetts Legislature, and in 1801 was a member of the national House of Representatives, having been elected as a Republican. Before leaving Boston for Washington he married Miss Caroline Langdon, the couple making the journey to Washington by coach as a bridal tour, the journey occupying two weeks. Dr. Eustis served two terms in Congress.

Upon taking the office of President Mr. Madison named Dr. Eustis as Secretary of War. He was nominated on March 6 and was confirmed the next day, but did not assume the office until April 8. His administration of the War Department was characterized by indecision, and in the early stages of the war with Great Britain the Republican party was unanimous that he was unequal to the exigencies of the time and demanded a change in the department. The President endeavored to evade making a change in his cabinet by asking Congress to give him the authority to appoint two Assistant Secretaries of War; but this was refused and the President reluctantly asked the resignation of Secretary Eustis, which was tendered on December 3, he continuing to serve until the thirty-first of that month.

On December 19, 1814, he was appointed minister to the Netherlands, and served in that capacity until May 5, 1818, when he was recalled by President Monroe. In 1820 he was again elected to Congress and re-elected in 1822. He resigned before the close of his second term, having been elected governor of the state. He died while governor.

JOHN ARMSTRONG

JOHN ARMSTRONG—Secretary of War from February 5, 1813, to August 30, 1814. Born in Carlisle, Pennsylvania, November 25, 1758. Son of John Armstrong. Educated at Princeton College. Married, in 1789, Miss Livingston. Died at Red Hook, New York, April 1, 1843.

1800—United States Senator.
1803—United States Senator.
1804—United States Senator.
1804—Minister to France.
1813—Secretary of War.

The father of John Armstrong, Secretary of War, was a distinguished soldier in the old French and Indian War, and in the War for Independence, in which he was a brigadier general. He also served four terms in the Continental Congress.

John was a student at Princeton University, but left the institution to engage in the War for Independence. He served first on the staff of General Mercer, and when that distinguished officer was mortally wounded at the battle of Princeton he carried him from the field. Later he served on the staff of General Gates at Stillwater and Saratoga. He was the author of the famous "Newburg Letters," reciting the wrongs of the soldiers and calling for an organized effort by the soldiers to secure their rights. The attempted mutiny was promptly suppressed by General Washington.

After the close of the war Mr. Armstrong made his home in Dutchess county, New York. In 1800 he was sent to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy, but resigned in a few months. He was again sent to the Senate in 1803 to fill a vacancy, and once more resigned. In 1804, for the third time, he was sent to the Senate to fill a vacancy, but in June of that year resigned to become minister to France.

As minister to France he was firm, decided and energetic in insisting on the rights of America. He wrote a letter in which he practically accused Napoleon of trying to cover theft by falsehood in the matter of indemnifying citizens of the United States for acts of France. He remained in France for six years and accomplished more for the Americans than any former minister to that country.

In 1812 he was made a brigadier general in the war with Great Britain and was given command of the District of New York. In 1813 he was made Secretary of War. His nomination as Secretary of War was strongly opposed and his confirmation was won by a very close vote.

As Secretary of War he did not get along well with the other members of the cabinet, especially with Secretary of State Monroe. At first he was energetic and improved the army in the field, selecting better commanders. He desired to manage the northern campaign himself and moved the office of Secretary of War to Sackett's Harbor. His con-

stant interference with the commanders in the field, it was claimed, was the cause of the miserable failure of the campaign. Secretary Monroe wrote a letter to the President declaring that Armstrong would ruin the administration if permitted to remain in the cabinet.

He left Washington almost defenseless, without a battery or a work of defense. His excuse was that to fortify Washington would bankrupt the treasury. The militia refused to serve under him after Washington was captured. The first brigade held a meeting and severely denounced the Secretary as the cause of the loss of Washington. President Madison suggested he temporarily retire. This he refused to do, but tendered his resignation, which was accepted.

The remainder of his life he spent in retirement. He wrote and published, "Notes of the War of 1812," and memoirs of Generals Montgomery and Wayne.

JOHN CALDWELL CALHOUN

JOHN C. CALHOUN—Secretary of War from December 10, 1817, to March 3, 1825; Secretary of State from April 1, 1844, to March 10, 1845. Born in the Albemarle district, South Carolina, March 18, 1782. Son of Patrick and Martha (Caldwell) Calhoun. Educated at Yale College. Married, in 1811, Miss Florida Calhoun. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, March 31, 1850.

1808—Member South Carolina Legislature.
1811—Member national House of Representatives.
1817—Secretary of War.
1825—Vice President of the United States.
1829—Vice President of the United States.
1832—United States Senator.
1844—Secretary of State.
1845—United States Senator.

For forty-two years—from 1808, when he entered the legislature of his native state, until 1850, when he died while a member of the United States Senate—John C. Calhoun was constantly in the service of his state and the nation without an interregnum. He was of Scotch-Irish descent, his father having emigrated to this country and, after a brief service in the Revolutionary Army, died, leaving his family in straitened circumstances.

Young John led a quiet life as a boy on the farm with his mother, with little or no opportunity to secure a regular education. He was eighteen years of age before the opportunity came for him to begin a systematic course of instruction. A sister had married a Presbyterian clergyman of education and he undertook the task of preparing his young brother-in-law for college. In 1802 young Calhoun entered the junior class at Yale College and two years later graduated with high honors. Leaving Yale he began the study of law at Litchfield, Connecticut, which he continued for eighteen months with great industry.

He returned to his native state and began the practice of his profession at Abbeyville. He became at once interested in politics and soon won a reputation as a public speaker of great force. In 1808 he was elected a member of the South Carolina Legislature and re-elected in 1809.

The abilities he displayed in the legislature were so great that in 1811 he was elected to the lower house of Congress and was twice re-elected. He entered Congress at a period when a great crisis confronted the country. All Europe was in a state of war, with Napoleon the dominating figure and Great Britain bending every energy for his overthrow. Neither France nor Great Britain paid any respect to the rights of neutral nations and the United States had suffered greatly from the outrages committed by both nations on American commerce. Among the people of the United States there still lingered a hatred of Great Britain, caused by the struggle of the colonies for independence, and the sympathies of the majority of the people were with France. Both nations had given the United States a hundred causes for war, but the people would not consent to a war with France and the strength of the British navy acted as a deterrent against war with that country.

The policy pursued by President Madison was one certain, sooner or later, to end in war; but President Madison was a lover of peace and was wholly devoid of an aggressive spirit, so the country drifted, year after year, ever getting closer to the brink of war. The election of 1811 put into Congress a number of young men who were without the traditional fear of the power of Great Britain and who were filled with the spirit of defending the rights of the nation on the field of battle if necessary. Among those young men the two most noted were Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun. The young men of the House at once took the lead in the twelfth Congress, Mr. Clay being elected Speaker.

Mr. Calhoun was given the second place on the Committee on Foreign Relations, and became, practically, the head of the committee. He had broad national ideas and imbued the committee with his own views of the nation's wrongs and the necessity for asserting her rights. On November 29, 1811, the committee submitted to the House its report on that part of the President's message that had been referred to it. The report concluded with six resolutions, drafted by Mr. Calhoun, which, while not being an open declaration of war, were of a tenor that, if adopted, made war inevitable. The resolutions provided for putting the country in a condition to wage war, by increasing the army, procuring munitions and supplies and by greatly strengthening the navy.

Mr. Calhoun led the debate on the part of the committee, making a set speech of great power and eloquence. He began his speech by the frank declaration that the recommendations of the committee were a preparation for war. The discussion was long and soon developed that the war element was in a majority in the House, and from letters and petitions that were sent in from all parts of the country it was demon-

strated that in the South and West the war would be decidedly popular. In the New England states there was strong opposition. On May 6, 1812, Mr. Calhoun moved an immediate appeal to arms and that a formal declaration of war be issued. Thus, in the very commencement of his congressional career, he was one among the leaders of his party, and with Clay and Grundy shared the responsibility of pushing the country to resist the encroachment of Great Britain on the rights and commerce of the country even to the arbitrament of arms.

He was still a member of the House when peace was accomplished. During the whole war he had been one of the most advanced and energetic advocates of conducting a war until Great Britain was driven to recognize the rights of neutral nations and to abandon the claim she had exercised of the right of search of neutral vessels, and he was much disgusted when the treaty of peace failed to include any of the issues for which the war had been waged.

During his six years in Congress he took an active part in all the important debates. He was the first to announce in Congress the power of that body to enter upon a system of internal improvements. This he did in a speech delivered January 31, 1816, on a motion to repeal the direct tax that had been levied to provide funds with which to prosecute the war. In that speech he took advanced grounds for retaining the tax and applying the proceeds to the improvement of our interstate communications.

It is to Mr. Calhoun the credit is due for chartering the Bank of the United States. Under the administration of President Washington and the leadership of Alexander Hamilton the United States Bank had been granted a charter. When the charter expired great opposition to its renewal was manifested and Congress refused to renew. In 1816 Mr. Calhoun was chairman of the House Committee on Currency, and on January 6 reported a bill granting certain persons a charter for the establishment of the Bank of the United States, which he supported in a powerful speech. It is remarkable that in this speech he took strong grounds in favor of a policy, or a system, that in his later life he spent years in fighting and which at one time threatened, under his leadership, the life of the Union. The political doctrine of a protective tariff was then in its infancy and Mr. Calhoun was its friend and advocate.

From October 22, 1816, to December 10, 1817, the country had no Secretary of War. During the last two years of the administration of President Madison there were many shifts in this important department of the government. General Armstrong served until August 30, 1814; Mr. Monroe, Secretary of State, served *ad interim* to September 30 and was then appointed and commissioned as Secretary, serving until February 28, 1815, when he was again appointed Secretary of State, serving as Secretary of War *ad interim* until March 14; Henry Dearborn was nominated but twice rejected, and on March 14, 1816, Alexander J. Dallas, Secretary of the Treasury, was appointed *ad in-*

terim Secretary of War, serving until August 8, 1816, when William H. Crawford was appointed, serving until October 21. From that date until December 10, 1817, the department was in the charge of the chief clerk.

When Mr. Monroe became President he nominated General Isaac Shelby, of Kentucky, for Secretary of War, but the general declined to accept the office. On October 6, 1817, during a recess of the Senate, Mr. Calhoun was commissioned, but did not enter upon the duties until December 10. He found the department in a state of great confusion, owing to the many changes of responsible heads during the last two years of the administration of President Madison and the long interregnum under the chief clerk. Not only was the department in a chaotic condition but the army itself was in a state of demoralization. Secretary Calhoun displayed great executive and administrative ability and soon brought order out of chaos, reorganizing the service in every branch, reducing the expenditures and adding to the efficiency of the department and of the army. An attempt was made to connect the Secretary with a contract scandal, but a committee of the House of Representatives, after a thorough investigation, declared there was nothing reflecting in any way upon Mr. Calhoun. These charges were not made until after he had left the department and become Vice President.

Mr. Calhoun was ambitious to be President, but, in 1824, Henry Clay, Speaker of the House of Representatives; John Quincy Adams, Secretary of State; William H. Crawford, Secretary of the Treasury, and General Jackson being in the field, he refrained from being a candidate and was elected Vice President. He became Vice President on March 4, 1825, and was re-elected in 1828. The slavery question was assuming large proportions and, as he had fallen under the displeasure of President Jackson, he resigned the vice presidency a short time before the expiration of his term and was elected to the United States Senate. The quarrel with President Jackson was a death blow to his aspirations to become President and he went into the Senate to fight the battles of slavery.

Just after resigning as Vice President Mr. Calhoun published a pamphlet addressed to the people of the United States explaining the cause of the differences with the President. The pamphlet charged that the President had been instigated by Martin Van Buren, Secretary of State, to assume a hostile attitude toward the Vice President, with a view of destroying the Vice President politically for the benefit of the Secretary of State. The differences grew out of certain charges that had been made against the President when he was in command of the army in the war with the Seminoles during the administration of President Monroe. General Jackson had been made to believe it was William H. Crawford, then Secretary of the Treasury, who had advised his arrest and trial by court martial, but lately had been in-

formed it was Mr. Calhoun who had given such advice. President Jackson replied publicly to the pamphlet, and a shake-up in the cabinet soon followed by which the friends of Mr. Calhoun in the cabinet were asked to resign.

In the Senate Mr. Calhoun was the unquestioned leader of the extreme advocates of the doctrine of states rights, and contended with all his great powers for those views of the Constitution and of the rights of the people of the states. In this connection he renounced his former views on the tariff and became practically a free trader. He was the recognized leader of his party in South Carolina during the nullification agitation. In the Senate he was the bitter opponent of President Jackson, strenuously condemning the removal of the government deposits from the United States Bank, and voted for the famous resolutions of the Senate censuring the President, the resolutions which were afterward expunged from the record.

In the twenty-fifth Congress Senator Calhoun vigorously defended the Missouri Compromise and introduced several resolutions declaring that the federal government had no right nor power to interfere with slavery in the states, and that it would be inexpedient and impolitic to interfere, abolish or control slavery in the District of Columbia and the territories.

In 1841, when John Tyler became President on the death of President William Henry Harrison, the question of the eventual annexation of Texas was beginning to occupy public attention. Senator Calhoun became one of the most ardent advocates of the scheme. All the members of the cabinet, except Mr. Webster, Secretary of State, resigned their positions. President Tyler offered Senator Calhoun one of the vacant places, but he declined, preferring to remain in the Senate. Later Mr. Webster resigned the state portfolio and Abel P. Upshur was appointed. On February 28, 1844, Secretary Upshur was killed by the explosion of a gun on board the steamer *Princeton*. The President tendered the vacant place to Senator Calhoun, who accepted it, as he declared, for the sole purpose of aiding in the annexation of Texas.

A treaty of annexation was negotiated but failed of ratification by the Senate. On this Secretary Calhoun originated the plan of securing annexation by joint resolution, which would require only a majority vote, while the ratification of a treaty could be accomplished only by a two-thirds vote of the Senate. The joint resolution was adopted late on the evening of March 2, 1845. Secretary Calhoun persuaded the President to call a meeting of the cabinet for the next day, it being the last day of his term. The Secretary wrote a despatch to the Texas authorities urging them to promptly accept the terms of the joint resolution, and submitted it to the President and cabinet, by whom it was approved. A special messenger was appointed to carry the resolution and the letter of the Secretary to Texas, and he started on his long journey to Texas only two or three hours before the expiration of the

term of President Tyler. Secretary Calhoun did not want a war with Mexico, but believed a money payment would settle the difficulty and desired a money offer should be made to Mexico.

The hold Mr. Calhoun had upon the people and politicians of South Carolina was again exemplified. For the second time a sitting member of the Senate resigned to give the place to Mr. Calhoun. The first was in 1832, just before the expiration of Mr. Calhoun's term as Vice President, when Senator Robert Y. Hayne resigned; and now, again, in 1845, when he was about to leave the cabinet, Daniel E. Huger resigned his seat in the Senate that Mr. Calhoun might be elected to the vacancy.

In 1847, as a reply to the Wilmot Proviso, Senator Calhoun introduced a series of resolutions declaring the territories to be the common property of the several states and denying the right of Congress to prohibit slavery in a territory or to pass any law that would have the effect to deprive the citizens of any state from emigrating with his slave property into such territory. He defended the resolutions in an elaborate speech, but they never came to a vote.

In a speech on the bill providing a territorial government for Oregon Senator Calhoun declared that the exclusion of slavery from any territory was a subversion of the Union and that the separation of the states was an accomplished fact. He endeavored to get the members from the Southern states to unite in a call for a convention of the slave states to redress themselves. He said: "The great strife between the North and the South is ended." He denouncd any Southern man who would not take the same course in favor of withdrawing from the Union.

He remained in the Senate until his death, March 31, 1850. His last speech was read for him by his friend, James M. Mason, Mr. Calhoun being too feeble to be present. It was on the proposal of Senator Seward to declare that slavery should not exist in the territories of Utah and New Mexico.

JAMES BARBOUR

JAMES BARBOUR—Secretary of War from March 7, 1825, to May 24, 1828. Born in Orange county, Virginia, June 10, 1775. Educated in the common schools. Died in Barboursville, Virginia, June 7, 1842.

1796—Member of the Virginia House of Delegates.
1812—Governor of Virginia.
1815—United States Senator.
1825—Secretary of War.
1828—Minister to England.

James Barbour was of old Virginia stock, having been locally prominent from an early day. His opportunities to secure an education were limited, but he made the best use of them possible. While acting as deputy sheriff of the county he studied law, and was admitted to the

bar in 1794, when he was but nineteen years of age. So strongly did his native talents impress the people of his county that they elected him, in 1796, a member of the House of Delegates, when he had just reached his majority. He was annually re-elected and remained a member until 1812, when he was chosen governor of the state. During his membership of the House of Delegates he was one of the leaders and for several sessions was chosen speaker.

In 1815 he was elected to the United States Senate as an anti-Democrat, to fill a vacancy occasioned by the death of Senator Richard Brent. He remained in the Senate until he was appointed Secretary of War in 1825 by President John Quincy Adams. In 1818 he was President *pro tempore* of the Senate. During his incumbency of the War Department but little of note was done. In May, 1826, he was appointed minister to England, but was recalled the next year by President Jackson.

PETER BUELL PORTER

PETER B. PORTER—Secretary of War from June 21, 1828, to March 3, 1829. Born at Salisbury, Connecticut, August 4, 1773. Son of Colonel Joshua and Abigail (Buell) Porter. Educated at Yale College. Married, in September, 1818, Miss Lettitia Breckenridge. Died at Niagara Falls, New York, March 20, 1844.

1802—Member New York Legislature.
1809—Member national House of Representatives.
1812—Major General of Volunteers.
1815—Member national House of Representatives.
1816—Secretary of State of New York.
1826—Secretary of War.

Peter B. Porter was one of that younger set of congressmen who pushed Congress to the declaration of war against Great Britain in 1812. After graduating from Yale College in 1791 he studied law, and on being admitted to the bar in 1795 removed from Connecticut to Canandaigua, New York. He became so popular with the people that he was chosen to serve in several local offices and in 1802 was elected a member of the legislature. In the fall of that year he removed to Buffalo. He was a follower of Jefferson, and in 1808 was elected to Congress. He was made a member of the Committee on Foreign Affairs. It was as chairman of that committee in December, 1811, he made a report on the aggressions of the British, concluding with the resolution authorizing the President to declare war against that power.

On the opening of the war he resigned his seat in Congress and volunteered in the army. He was immediately offered a commission as brigadier general, but declined it. He was made colonel of a regiment of volunteers and took part in the battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane, commanding all the infantry forces in the latter battle. For his gallant services in these engagements Congress gave him a gold medal

and the state of New York presented him with a handsome sword. He was also promoted, first to brigadier general and then to major general. In 1815, on the reorganization of the army, he was offered the position of commander-in-chief, but declined.

He was again elected to Congress and took his seat on March 4, 1815, serving until January 23, 1816, when he resigned to become secretary of the state of New York. In 1817 he was an unsuccessful candidate for governor of New York. Being appointed Secretary of War by President John Quincy Adams, he served through the remainder of his administration.

Retiring from the cabinet in 1829 he returned to private life and the practice of his profession at Buffalo. He was engaged in several business enterprises of large extent.

JOHN HENRY EATON

JOHN H. EATON—Secretary of War from March 9, 1829, to June 18, 1831. Born in Tennessee in 1780. Educated at Chapel Hill Academy. Married Mrs. Peggy Timberlake. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, November 17, 1856.

1818—United States Senator.
1829—Secretary of War.
1834—Governor of Florida.
1836—Minister to Spain.

Little can be learned of the early life of John H. Eaton. He managed to secure a fair education and studied law. There is some uncertainty as to the place of his birth, some authorities giving it as in the state of Tennessee and others as in North Carolina, the weight of authority being in favor of North Carolina. He lived, however, as a youth at Franklin, Tennessee, about twenty miles from Nashville. There he rose to some political popularity and influence and was elected by the people as a member of the state legislature. He early became intimate with General Jackson, who remained his warm friend, even selecting him to write his biography. Mr. Eaton began this work but never completed it.

He rose to some distinction as a lawyer. In 1818 he was appointed to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Senator George W. Campbell. Mr. Eaton remained in the Senate until 1829, when he resigned to accept a place in the cabinet of President Jackson as Secretary of War. In the Senate he was not distinguished except as being a warm adherent and partisan of General Jackson.

When President Jackson was making up his cabinet he hesitated a long time as to the member of his cabinet he should select from his own state. His choice was between Senators White and Eaton. Senator White was not anxious to exchange his senatorial seat for one in the

cabinet, and so notified the President, who then selected Mr. Eaton, making him Secretary of War.

A short time before his appointment to the cabinet Mr. Eaton had married Mrs. Peggy Timberlake, whose husband had committed suicide. Mrs. Timberlake was a woman of great beauty and vivacity of manner and her name had been connected with some scandals before her marriage to Senator Eaton. When the senator was made a cabinet minister the wives of the other members of the cabinet refused to receive or recognize her socially, thereby causing a great deal of friction in administrative circles, the President taking the part of Mrs. Eaton. The friction finally resulted in the breaking up of the cabinet and Secretary Eaton sent a challenge to Mr. Ingham, Secretary of the Treasury.

In 1834 the President appointed Mr. Eaton as governor of Florida and in 1836 sent him as minister to Spain. He was not very successful in either place. He returned to the United States when Mr. Van Buren became President, and made his home in Washington, where he died in poverty.

LEWIS CASS

LEWIS CASS—Secretary of War from August 8, 1831, to October 4, 1836; Secretary of State from March 6, 1857, to December 14, 1860. Born in Exeter, New Hampshire, October 9, 1782. Son of Jonathan and Mary (Gilman) Cass. Educated at Exeter Academy. Married, in 1806, Miss Elizabeth Spencer. Died at Detroit, Michigan, June 17, 1866.

1806—Member Ohio Legislature.
1807—United States Marshal for Ohio.
1812—Colonel of Volunteers.
1813—Brigadier General of Volunteers.
1813—Governor of Michigan Territory.
1831—Secretary of War.
1836—Minister to France.
1845—United States Senator.
1857—Secretary of State.

Lewis Cass, for many years a prominent character in political life in the United States, was descended from patriotic families on both his paternal and maternal side. His father, Jonathan Cass, was a soldier of the Revolutionary War, taking part in the battles of Bunker Hill, Princeton, Monmouth and Trenton, together with numerous other engagements in the central and northern part of the country. Lewis was born during the troublous times of the Confederation. He was six years old when the Constitution was adopted and witnessed the rejoicings of the people of his native village on the receipt of the news of its ratification. When but ten years of age he entered Exeter Academy and was noted for his industry as a student. While attending the academy his father was made a major in the army and sent West to take part in the campaign of General Wayne against the Indians. After

leaving the academy young Cass spent a few months as a teacher in Wilmington, Delaware. His father having decided to make his future home in Ohio, Lewis, with his bundle on his back, plodded over the mountains to that new country. In 1800 he became a student of law in the office of Return J. Meigs, afterward governor of Ohio. The first certificate of admission to the bar under the state constitution of Ohio was given, in 1802, to Lewis Cass. Mr. Cass began his practice in the little village of Zanesville, which was then struggling up in the wilderness. In 1804 he was made prosecuting attorney for Muskingum county, and thus began his public career.

In October, 1806, although lacking one year of being old enough to make him eligible under the state constitution, Mr. Cass was elected a member of the Ohio Legislature and took his seat on the first Monday of December of that year. He was an ardent Republican of the Jefferson school and soon became an influential member of the legislature. In 1807 President Jefferson gave him the appointment of United States marshal for the District of Ohio. He held that position until the outbreak of the War of 1812 with Great Britain. Under an act of Congress Ohio was called upon to furnish three regiments. Mr. Cass was made colonel of the third regiment, having assisted in recruiting the other two regiments and forwarding them to the front. Colonel Cass was sent with his regiment to Detroit to assist in the defense of that post and in the proposed operations from there against Canada.

When the unfortunate General Hull undertook his abortive invasion of Canada, Colonel Cass was in the first boat and was the first American soldier to put his foot on Canadian soil. The only glimmer of success in that invasion was won by Colonel Cass at Tarontee, where he won a decided success over the British in a sharp skirmish. Colonel Cass was one of those surrendered by General Hull, but was soon paroled. He hastened to Washington and made a report to the Secretary of War of the whole disgraceful proceeding. He was one of the witnesses at the trial of General Hull before the court martial.

In February, 1813, Mr. Cass was made a colonel in the regular army, and a few months later was promoted to a brigadier generalship and assigned to the Western army under General Harrison. During the battle of the Thames General Cass acted on the staff of General Harrison. Desiring to co-operate with the American forces in Eastern Canada, General Harrison left the command of Detroit and of the subjugated portions of Western Canada to General Cass, and on October 29, 1813, the President appointed General Cass military and civil governor of Michigan, a postion he held until 1831.

He was an energetic and efficient governor and was remarkably successful in handling the Indians, defeating them in several severe engagements and forcing them to sue for peace. He did much to build up the new territory and much of the greatness of Michigan is due to the activity and energy of Governor Cass. While on the remote fron-

tier Governor Cass did not lose his interest in national politics and he became as ardent a follower of General Jackson as he formerly had been of President Jefferson. In 1831, when the cabinet of President Jackson was broken up by the contest over Mrs. Eaton, wife of the Secretary of War, Governor Cass was offered and accepted the position as Secretary of War.

He had hardly taken his seat in the cabinet when the great Indian war under Black Hawk broke out. Never in its previous history had the War Department been handled with the energy and efficiency it was during the short duration of this war. Secretary Cass not only urged forward troops and supplies with great vigor, but in the main directed the campaign. In all the great questions of policy which came up during the administration of President Jackson Secretary Cass took an active interest. When South Carolina threatened to resist the new tariff act Secretary Cass sent General Winfield Scott to Charleston with instructions to examine the defense and hold himself in readiness to support the civil officers of the United States. Thus the Secretary of War showed himself in full accord with his fiery chief in putting down any semblance of rebellion against the constituted authorities. Secretary Cass opposed the President on the question of the removal of the government deposits from the United States Bank, and offered his resignation, but was induced to withdraw it by the President promising to assume the whole responsibility of the act of removal. In 1836 Secretary Cass resigned his place in the cabinet and was appointed minister to France.

It does not appear that Mr. Cass had any very difficult diplomatic problems before him during his six years as minister, but he conducted himself with such dignity and prudence as to heighten European respect for our government. His most important act was drafting and presenting to the French government a protest against that country signing a treaty with Great Britain wherein the right of search of vessels of other nations, in an effort to suppress the slave trade, was admitted. Mr. Cass returned to the United States in 1842 and was received with great honors in some sections.

In February, 1845, Mr. Cass was elected a member of the United States Senate by the Michigan Legislature. He soon became one of the recognized leaders of the Democratic party in the Senate and took a prominent part in the discussions. In 1844 the name of Senator Cass was widely canvassed in the seeking of his party for a candidate for the presidential nomination, but that honor was given to James K. Polk. In 1848, however, Mr. Cass was successful in securing the nomination, but it was an unfortunate year for the Democratic ticket, for Mr. Van Buren, who still had a large following, was the candidate of the Free Soilers and took enough votes away from the Democrats to give the election to General Taylor, the candidate of the Whigs.

Mr. Cass had resigned from the Senate on receiving the presidential

nomination, but was again elected, serving until 1857, during the heat of the contest over the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. On March 6, 1857, President Buchanan nominated Senator Cass as Secretary of State. The nomination was promptly confirmed and Mr. Cass entered upon his new duties the same day. He was then seventy-five years old and had grown rather indolent, having lost the vigor that had characterized his early years. During the administration of President Buchanan slavery was the absorbing question and the whole country was torn up over it. When secession became a fixed fact there was a great difference of opinion in the cabinet as to the duty of the administration. At various meetings of the cabinet Secretary Cass insisted that the forts in Charleston Harbor should be reinforced and strengthened.

The President was reluctant to take any decided steps and on December 13, 1860, Secretary Cass made a last effort to induce the President to take action to protect the forts. On that day at the cabinet meeting he said: "These forts must be strengthened. I demand it." The President still hesitated, and on the next day Mr. Cass sent in his resignation and refused to reconsider this action unless a solemn pledge was made that all the forts in the South should be reinforced without delay. This ended the public career of General Cass. Just after his resignation he is quoted as saying in a conversation with several senators: "I crossed the Ohio River with but one dollar in my pocket. I went to Michigan. I was four times governor of the territory, and on more than one occasion I was confirmed by the Senate without a single dissenting vote. I have been a senator and a minister to France; and I am going home to Michigan to die. If I wanted the office of constable there isn't a town in the state that would elect me."

JOEL ROBERTS POINSETT

JOEL R. POINSETT—Secretary of War from March 14, 1837, to March 3, 1841. Born in Charleston, South Carolina, March 3, 1779. Educated at Edinburgh, Scotland, and Woolwich, England. Died at Statesville, South Carolina, December 12, 1851.

1809—Special Envoy to the South American States.
1821—Member national House of Representatives.
1822—Special Envoy to Mexico.
1825—Minister to Mexico.
1837—Secretary of War.

Joel R. Poinsett came from Huguenot stock, his ancestors leaving France to escape religious persecution. Immediately after the Revolutionary War his parents took him to Great Britain, where he remained until 1788. Returning to South Carolina his parents were desirous of giving him a thorough education and placed him under the tutorage of the famous Dr. Dwight, at Greenfield, Connecticut. After a year or two under Dr. Dwight he was again taken to England and placed in a school

near London. Later he was sent to Edinburgh, Scotland, to complete his collegiate course and to study medicine. His health failing him, he returned to London and there passed some months at the military academy at Woolwich, studying mathematics, fortification and gunnery.

In 1800 he returned to the United States and to South Carolina, where he began the study of law, but soon went for the third time to Europe. He remained abroad until the spring of 1809, traveling extensively in Europe and Asia. He returned to America at a time when the South American states were in revolt against Spain and President Madison sent Mr. Poinsett on a mission to South America to watch the course of events and to advise him as to the propriety of recognizing the revolutionary governments. While there a number of American vessels were seized by the Spaniards and their crews imprisoned. Chili offered a military force for the purpose of recapturing them, and in command of that force Mr. Poinsett defeated the Spaniards, recapturing the vessels and releasing their crews.

At the time of the reorganization of the American army for the War of 1812 President Madison desired to appoint Mr. Poinsett quartermaster general, but the appointment was strenuously opposed by Secretary of War Eustis and the name of Mr. Poinsett was withdrawn. He served a term or two in the South Carolina Legislature, and in 1821 became a member of Congress, serving two terms. While a member of Congress President Monroe sent him on a special mission to Mexico to watch the course of the revolt there against Spain, and in 1825 he was appointed by President John Quincy Adams minister to Mexico. While in Mexico he was the subject of much persecution on account of his efforts to organize lodges of the Free Masons, of which order he was an enthusiastic member.

He negotiated a treaty of commerce with Mexico and endeavored to effect the purchase of Texas. He resigned his position in 1829 and returned to South Carolina. He was an intimate friend of President Jackson and was his confidential correspondent during the nullification troubles. He earnestly espoused the side of the Union and raised a company of volunteers in Charleston to aid the President in putting down nullification.

When Mr. Van Buren became President he selected Mr. Poinsett for head of the War Department. He was nominated, confirmed and commissioned on March 7, 1837, and entered upon the duties of the office on the fourteenth of the month. As Secretary of War he did efficient and valuable service in reorganizing the ordnance department. Leaving the cabinet in March, 1841, Mr. Poinsett retired to private life, devoting much of his time to writing on various topics. He did not lose his interest in public matters and strongly opposed the war with Mexico. At one time he was offered a high command in the Russian army, but declined it.

JOHN BELL

JOHN BELL—Secretary of War from March 6, 1841, to September 11, 1841. Born near Nashville, Tennessee, February 15, 1797. Educated at Cumberland College (now Nashville University). Died at Cumberland Iron Works, Tennessee, September 10, 1869.

1817—Member Tennessee Senate.
1827—Member national House of Representatives.
1841—Secretary of War.
1847—United States Senator.

The parents of John Bell were in moderate circumstances only, but were able to send him to Cumberland College, now University of Nashville, where he graduated in 1814. He studied law and was admitted to practice when only nineteen years of age. At the age of twenty he was elected to the Tennessee Senate, serving one term only, declining a re-election.

He devoted himself to the practice of his profession for ten years, rising to be the head of the Tennessee bar. By a majority of only one vote he was elected, in 1827, a member of the national House of Representatives and continued a member of that body continuously until March 3, 1841. During one session he served as speaker, defeating for that office James K. Polk, afterward President of the United States. Mr. Bell was originally a Democrat in politics, but became one of the founders of the Whig party. It was as a Whig he was elected to Congress.

In the House he took part in the debates on all important questions. He opposed the removal of the government deposits from the United States Bank and the tariff policy of Mr. Clay. He strongly supported President Jackson in his attitude on nullification. He strongly opposed the selling of the stock held by the government in the Bank of the United States and the distribution of the treasury surplus to the states. For several sessions he was chairman of the House Committee on the Judiciary.

When William Henry Harrison became President on March 4, 1841, he nominated Mr. Bell for Secretary of War. He was promptly confirmed. He served until September of the same year and retired with the other members of the cabinet when President Tyler broke with the Whig party.

Leaving the cabinet he returned to the practice of law at Nashville. In 1847 he was elected a member of the Tennessee House of Representatives, and on the assembling of that body was chosen United States Senator, where he served until March 3, 1859. In the Senate he opposed the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. In 1860 he was the candidate of the Constitutional-Union party for President, with Edward Everett as the candidate for Vice President. They received the electoral votes of Tennessee, Kentucky and Virginia.

JOHN CANFIELD SPENCER

JOHN C. SPENCER—Secretary of War from October 12, 1841, to March 7, 1843; Secretary of the Treasury from March 8, 1843, to May 2, 1844. Born at Hudson, New York, January 8, 1788. Son of Ambrose and ——— (Canfield) Spencer. Educated at Union College. Died at Albany, New York, May 18, 1855.

1817—Member national House of Representatives.
1819—Member New York House of Representatives.
1824—Member New York Senate.
1831—Member New York House of Representatives.
1832—Secretary of State of New York.
1841—Secretary of War.
1843—Secretary of the Treasury.

The father of John C. Spencer was an eminent jurist of New York. He gave his son an opportunity for a classical education, sending him tc Union College, where he graduated in 1806. Shortly after leaving college the young man became secretary to Governor Tompkins, studying law at the same time. He was admitted to the bar in 1809 and began a successful career as an attorney. In 1813 he was appointed brigade judge advocate in the army, and in 1817 was sent, as a Democrat, to Congress, serving one term.

Between 1820 and 1828 he served several terms in the New York Legislature, and in 1832 was again a member of the legislature. He served one term as secretary of state of New York. In 1841, when the cabinet of President Tyler broke up owing to differences between the President and the Whig party that had elected him, Mr. Spencer was selected for Secretary of War. While he was holding this position in the cabinet his son, Philip Spencer, a midshipman in the navy, was hanged for mutiny on board the brig *Somers*.

While Secretary of War Mr. Spencer organized and fitted out the first exploring expedition conducted by John C. Fremont. At the second break up of the cabinet of President Tyler Mr. Spencer was transferred to the Treasury Department. While he was Secretary of the Treasury the President nominated Mr. Spencer as Associate Justice of the Supreme Court, but the Senate rejected the nomination. In May, 1844, Mr. Spencer resigned from the cabinet owing to a difference with the President as to the annexation of Texas. Mr. Spencer never held office after leaving the cabinet.

JAMES MADISON PORTER

JAMES M. PORTER—Secretary of War from March 8, 1843, to February 19, 1844. Born in Selma, Pennsylvania, January 6, 1793. Son of General Andrew Porter. Educated in the common schools. Died at Eaton, Pennsylvania, November 11, 1862.

1838—Member Pennsylvania Constitutional Convention.
1841—Secretary of War.

At the second reorganization of the cabinet of President Tyler, James M. Porter, an eminent lawyer of Pennsylvania, was made Secretary of War. He was appointed and commissioned during a recess of the Senate. His appointment was sent to the Senate in the following December and was rejected by that body January 30, 1844.

The father of Mr. Porter was a distinguished general in the Continental Army during the War for Independence. James M. studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1813, soon achieving great distinction. He was one of the founders of Lafayette College and for many years was a trustee of that institution.

WILLIAM WILKINS

WILLIAM WILKINS—Secretary of War from February 20, 1844, to March 7, 1845. Born in Carlisle, Pennsylvania, December 20, 1779. Son of John Wilkins. Educated at Dickinson College. Married Matilda Dallas. Died at Homewood, Pennsylvania, June 23, 1865.

1820—Member Pennsylvania Legislature.
1821—Judge of the Pennsylvania District Court.
1824—United States Judge for Western Pennsylvania District.
1831—United States Senator.
1834—Minister to Russia.
1843—Member national House of Representatives.
1844—Secretary of War.
1855—Member Pennsylvania Senate.

The father of William Wilkins was an officer of distinction in the Continental Army during the Revolutionary War. After the establishment of the Union under the Constitution he held many local offices. After leaving college William studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1801, beginning the practice in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, where he soon rose to influence in business and political affairs. He assisted in establishing the Pittsburgh Manufacturing Company in 1810, and was the first president of the Bank of Pittsburgh. As a jurist he ranked high. He was a United States senator when he was made minister to Russia in 1834, and was a member of the House of Representatives when given a seat in the cabinet of President Polk. In 1833 he received the electoral vote of Pennsylvania for Vice President as against Martin Van Buren.

GEORGE WASHINGTON CRAWFORD

GEORGE W. CRAWFORD—Secretary of War from March 14, 1849, to July 22, 1850. Born in Columbia county, Georgia, December 23, 1798. Son of Peter Crawford. Educated at Princeton College. Died near Augusta, Georgia, July 22, 1872.

1827—Attorney General of Georgia.
1837—Member Georgia Legislature.
1843—Member national House of Representatives.
1843—Governor of Georgia.
1845—Governor of Georgia.
1849—Secretary of War.
1861—President of Georgia Secession Convention.

Mr. Crawford graduated from Princeton College in 1820, and studied law, being admitted to the bar in 1822, commencing the practice in Augusta. He early rose to prominence in the Georgia bar and when but twenty-nine years of age was attorney general of the commonwealth, serving four years. In 1843 he served one month as a representative in Congress, having been elected to fill a vacancy, as a Whig. The same year he was elected governor of the state and re-elected in 1845. At that time the state of Georgia was in great financial embarrassment, its credit being so low it could not effect a loan at any price. Governor Crawford's energetic and business-like administration soon restored the credit of the state. He pledged his entire fortune, amounting to about one hundred and fifty thousand dollars to the banks to reimburse them, if necessary, for any loss they might sustain by taking the bonds of the state at par.

While Secretary of War he became involved in an unsavory scandal. One Gàlpin had a claim dating back to the Revolutionary War which was at first presented against the state of Georgia, and then transferred to the federal government. During the administration of Presidetn Polk Mr. Crawford appeared as attorney for the claimant. In the last days of the session of Congress of 1848 an act was passed authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to examine and adjust the claim. Just before President Polk retired from office the claim was allowed, and Mr. Crawford, as the attorney, was paid forty thousand dollars, being principal without interest.

After Mr. Crawford became Secretary of War his client requested him to prosecute a claim for interest. Mr. Crawford's name did not appear on the claim for interest, but the matter was pressed with much vigor. The claim was disallowed by Congress. The question was submitted to the Attorney General who gave an opinion that the claim for interest was sound, and the Secretary of the Treasury, acting on that opinion, paid the claim amounting to one hundred and ninety-one thousand dollars, of which attorney of record received three thousand dollars and Mr. Crawford one-half of the remainder. A committee of Congress reported that the payment of the interest claim was not justified. At the investigation it was disclosed that Mr. Crawford never informed the President or Secretary of the Treasury of his connection with the claim.

CHARLES MAGILL CONRAD

CHARLES M. CONRAD—Secretary of War from August 16, 1850, to March 7, 1853. Born in Winchester, Virginia, in 1804. Educated in the schools of New Orleans. Died in New Orleans, February 11, 1878.

18 —Member Louisiana Legislature.
1842—United States Senator.
1844—Member Louisiana Constitutional Convention.
1849—Member national House of Representatives.
1850—Secretary of War.
1862—Member Confederate Congress.

Born in Virginia Mr. Conrad removed with his parents to New Orleans, Louisiana, where he received his education in the city schools. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1828. After serving several terms in the legislature of Louisiana he was elected to the United States Senate in 1842 to fill a vacancy, serving until March 3, 1843. In 1849 he was sent to Congress and while a member of the House was made Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Fillmore. During the war between the states he served in the Confederate Congress, and in the Confederate Army with the rank of brigadier general.

JEFFERSON DAVIS

JEFFERSON DAVIS—Secretary of War from March 8, 1853, to March 3, 1857. Born in Christian (now Todd) county, Kentucky, June 3, 1808. Son of Samuel and Jane (Cook) Davis. Educated at Transylvania College and West Point Academy. Married Sarah Knox Taylor; February 26, 1845, Varina Harell. Died at New Orleans, Louisiana, December 6, 1889.

1845—Member national House of Representatives.
1847—United States Senator.
1851—United States Senator.
1853—Secretary of War.
1857—United States Senator.
1861—President Southern Confederacy.

The parents of Mr. Davis, soon after his birth, removed from Kentucky to Mississippi, and it was as a citizen of that state he grew to fame. For two years he attended St. Thomas College, in Washington county, Kentucky, and then Jefferson College, in Mississippi, and Transylvania College, in Kentucky, for a like term. Receiving an appointment as a cadet in the academy at West Point he graduated from that institution with the class of 1828. He served in the army until June 30, 1835, when he resigned and engaged in cotton planting in Mississippi. He took an active interest in the political affairs of the state and became one of the leaders of the Democratic party.

He was elected to Congress but served only a part of his term, resigning to take command of a regiment of Mississippi volunteers in the war with Mexico. He was with General Taylor in the siege of Monterey, where he greatly distinguished himself. At the battle of Buena Vista he made a charge on the Mexicans that greatly contributed to the success of the American army, for which he was promoted to brigadier general, May 27, 1847. He declined this appointment and remained with his regiment.

In August, 1847, he was appointed to a vacancy in the United States Senate, serving until November, 1851, when he resigned. In the Senate he became one of the leading advocates of the extreme states rights policy. He opposed the compromise measures introduced by Mr. Clay in regard to the admission of California into the Union as a state. The compromise measure declared that as slavery did not exist by law, and was not likely to be introduced into any of the territories acquired from Mexico, it would be inexpedient for Congress to provide by law either for its introduction or exclusion from any part of such territory, and recommended that no action be taken.

Senator Davis objected to the measure, declaring that it gave nothing to the South in the settlement of the question. He declared that the extension of the Missouri Compromise to the Pacific, with a specific recognition of right to hold slaves in the territory below that line, was the least he would accept. In 1851 there was a strong feeling in Mississippi in favor of seceding from the Union, and Mr. Davis resigned from the Senate to become the candidate of that element for governor. He was defeated at the polls, but was again elected to the United States Senate.

He resigned this seat in 1853 to accept a place in the cabinet of President Pierce. As Secretary of War he introduced camels as a part of the transportation equipment of the army, especially in the Southwest. He also adopted an improved system of infantry tactics, together with improved artillery and rifled muskets for the infantry. He was an urgent advocate of an increase in the coast defenses, recommending improvements in the fortifications and armaments of the forts as well as a trained force of artillerists.

Leaving the cabinet at the close of the administration of President Pierce he was immediately elected again to the United States Senate, where he remained until his state seceded from the Union in 1861. In the Senate he was, as before, the leader of the extreme advocates of states rights and for the extension of slave territory. He was able in debate and supported the measure for the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. He was one of the earliest and most earnest advocates of secession, and it was mainly through his influence the state of Mississippi adopted the ordinance of secession.

At the organization of the Confederate government he was chosen its president, and held that office until the war ended by the overthrow

of the Confederacy. He was captured by some of the Union troops and was confined in Fortress Monroe. He was indicted by the grand jury at Norfolk for treason, but Chief Justice Chase refused to hold court; and after an imprisonment for some two years the government abandoned the case and he was restored to liberty. He wrote an exhaustive "History of the Rise and Fall of the Southern Confederacy."

JOHN BUCHANAN FLOYD

JOHN B. FLOYD—Secretary of War from March 7, 1857, to December 31, 1860. Born in Blacksburg, Virginia, June 1, 1806. Son of John Floyd. Educated at the College of South Carolina. Married Sallie Buchanan Preston. Died near Abington, Virginia, August 26, 1863.

1842—Member Virginia Legislature.
1850—Governor of Virginia.
1853—Member Virginia Legislature.
1857—Secretary of War.

Mr. Floyd early became active in politics and served two or three terms in the legislature of the state and, in 1850, was elected governor. He belonged to the extreme states rights school in politics. The only federal office he ever held was that of Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Buchanan.

The administration of the War Department by Secretary Floyd was the subject of many scandals. A firm that had large contracts with the government for transportation of supplies to the army became financially embarrassed and induced Secretary Floyd to accept large drafts on the department in advance of being earned and to write personal letters to certain banks urging them to discount the drafts thus accepted. In July, 1860, the firm needed additional help, when a friend of the Secretary by the name of Bailey, who had the custody of the funds held in trust for various Indian tribes by the Interior Department, to save the credit of Secretary Floyd, let the firm have one hundred and fifty thousand dollars of those funds, replacing them with advances accepted by the Secretary. This continued until Bailey had abstracted eight hundred and seventy thousand dollars of the trust funds. It subsequently developed that Secretary Floyd had accepted advance drafts amounting to more than seven million dollars. After he had retired from the office of Secretary of War he, together with Bailey, was indicted for embezzling the trust funds, but the Secretary was acquitted of having any knowledge of the action of Bailey.

Secretary Floyd was an extreme advocate of the right of secession and was charged by a resolution of the House of Representatives, adopted in December, 1860, with having sold large numbers of muskets to parties in the South intended for use against the government. The committee reported that during the year 1860 he had thus sold thirty-one thousand muskets to one person and had contracted the sale of

two hundred and fifty thousand to another person, but the last had not been delivered and the contract was cancelled by the successor of Secretary Floyd.

The committee also reported that Secretary Floyd had in the same time transferred to Southern arsenals from those in the North one hundred and fifteen thousand muskets and rifles, all of which were afterwards seized by the state or Confederate governments. He also ordered a large number of heavy guns transferred to the South from Pittsburgh. This attempt created the most intense excitement and the shipment was prevented by the citizens of Pittsburgh.

For some time Secretary Floyd exercised great influence with the President. In the cabinet meetings he assailed with great energy the action of Major Anderson in removing from Fort Moultrie to Fort Sumter, charging that his action was in violation of the promises of the administration made to the state authorities of South Carolina, and he demanded that Major Anderson be ordered back to Moultrie. At another meeting of the cabinet he peremptorily demanded the withdrawal of the government troops from Charleston harbor. The President finally demanded his resignation.

When the war between the states came he was made a brigadier general in the Confederate Army. He was in command at Fort Donelson when General Grant appeared before that place. He turned the command over to General Buckner and secretly left before the surrender. For this he was severely censured by Mr. Davis, who refused to again employ him in the army.

SIMON CAMERON

SIMON CAMERON—Secretary of War from March 11, 1861, to January 19, 1862. Born in Donegal, Pennsylvania, March 8, 1799. Son of Charles Cameron. Educated in district schools. Died in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, January 26, 1889.

1845—United States Senator.
1857—United States Senator.
1861—Secretary of War.
1862—Minister to Russia.
1867—United States Senator.

Simon Cameron was of Scotch and German descent, but the ancestors of both parents had been settled in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, for several generations. His maternal grandfather was a gallant soldier of the Revolutionary Army. His father, Charles Cameron, was a country tailor and had a hard struggle to maintain his large family. Finally financial disaster came and the family was broken up.

Simon, at the age of nine years, was adopted by a physician who desired to have him taught in his own profession, but the lad was not of the same mind and before his tenth year apprenticed himself to a

printer. He mastered this trade and at the age of seventeen, with but a few dollars in his pocket, went to Harrisburg, and was employed on the Harrisburg *Republican*, a paper he afterward purchased.

At Harrisburg he met Samuel J. Ingham, a leading Democratic politician and afterward Secretary of the Treasury in the cabinet of President Jackson. Ingham was the owner of a paper at Doylestown and he engaged Cameron to take the management of it and it soon became one of the influential papers of the state. He remained with Mr. Ingham until he was twenty-one years of age, when he secured employment with Gales & Seaton, of Washington, District of Columbia, publishers of the *Congressional Globe*.

In Washington he studied the science of politics, or rather of party management. Though but a youth he made a number of influential friends, among them John C. Calhoun, and later Andrew Jackson. He diligently attended the sessions of Congress, improving his knowledge of politics. He returned to Harrisburg and purchased the *Republican*, changing its name to the *Intelligencer*. It soon became the leading and most influential paper in Central Pennsylvania, and Mr. Cameron became the leader of his party and was made public printer.

Having accumulated some capital he secured the contract for building several sections of the Pennsylvania Central Railroad, but did not let go his hold on party politics. Later he secured the contract to build a canal connecting the Mississippi River and Lake Ponchartrain. It was while thus engaged that President Jackson sent for him to help him out of a political tangle.

President Jackson had been elected with an implied promise not to ask for a second term, but having fallen out with Calhoun, who was Vice President and who was desirous to succeed Jackson, the President wanted to defeat the Vice President. Mr. Cameron had been a warm supporter of Mr. Calhoun on the protection theory of a tariff, but was shrewd enough to see that Mr. Jackson was too strong for the South Carolina statesman.

He went to Harrisburg and secured from the legislature a memorial to President Jackson asking him as a patriot to consent to accept another term. This was followed by similar petitions from other states, and the President yielded. For this service President Jackson gave Mr. Cameron absolute control of the patronage in Pennsylvania.

He secured from the President the Russian mission for Senator Wilkins, and this opened the way for sending Mr. Buchanan to the Senate. In 1834 Mr. Cameron engaged in banking and railroad building. He was an earnest advocate of protection as a tariff matter. The Democrats had a majority of one in the Pennsylvania Legislature in 1845, when James Buchanan resigned from the Senate to become Secretary of State in the cabinet of President Polk, but were divided on the tariff question. Mr. Cameron became a candidate to succeed Mr. Buchanan in the Senate, and by a combination of the tariff Democrats

with the Whigs and Native Americans was elected. This cost him the friendship of both Secretary of State Buchanan and President Polk. Senator Cameron was not consulted upon any of the appointments in Pennsylvania, but was adroit and popular enough in the Senate to defeat for confirmation every one of the President's appointees.

Retiring from the Senate at the close of his term in 1849 he organized the People's party in Pennsylvania in opposition to the slavery wing of the Democrats. In 1857 he was again sent to the Senate. It was at a time when the North and South were drifting apart on the slavery question and Senator Cameron used all his efforts to compromise the differences.

He was a prominent candidate for the presidential nomination before the Republican National Convention in 1860. He could have obtained the nomination for Vice President on the ticket with Mr. Lincoln but for a split in the Pennsylvania delegation. When Mr. Lincoln became President he made Senator Cameron Secretary of War. His administration of that department was not satisfactory and he resigned in January, 1862. The President immediately appointed him minister to Russia. In that place he was able to secure the friendship of the Russian government to the United States, a friendship that was of great benefit during the Civil War.

In 1867 he was again elected to the United States Senate, serving until March 3, 1877, when he resigned in favor of his son, James D. Cameron. When Senator Sumner was removed from the chairmanship of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations Mr. Cameron was placed at the head of the committee. Mr. Cameron was opposed to the Hayes administration mainly on account of the civil service policy of the President. In 1880 Senator Cameron was one of the leaders in the movement to renominate General Grant for a third term. After resigning from the Senate Mr. Cameron retired to private life and the management of his large fortune.

EDWIN MCMASTERS STANTON

EDWIN M. STANTON—Attorney General from December 22, 1860, to March 5, 1861; Secretary of War from January 20, 1862, to May 25, 1868. Born at Steubenville, Ohio, December 19, 1816. Son of Daniel and Lucy (Norman) Stanton. Educated at Kenyon College. Married, December 31, 1836, Mary Ann Lamson; January 25, 1856, Ellen M. Hutchinson. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, December 24, 1869.

1860—Attorney General of the United States.
1862—Secretary of War.
1869—Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

Until Edwin M. Stanton became Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Lincoln, Carnot, of France, was considered the greatest

President Lincoln and His Cabinet

Sitting (left to right)—Edwin M. Stanton, Abraham Lincoln, Gideon Welles, William H. Seward, Edward Bates. *Standing (left to right)*—Salmon P. Chase, Caleb B. Smith, Montgomery Blair.

minister of war history had recorded. Great as was the burden on Carnot, it was light compared to that which rested on Mr. Stanton from the time he entered Mr. Lincoln's cabinet until the close of the Civil War in 1865.

On his father's side Mr. Stanton was of Quaker descent. His father was an eminent physician and surgeon and his mother was of old Virginia stock. Young Stanton was born in an atmosphere that was hostile to slavery, but he ever favored non-intervention with the holding of slaves until the war forced on the country interference as a war measure to save the life of the nation. He began his political life as a Jacksonian Democrat, but became a "Free-Soiler" when he thought Mr. Van Buren had been unfairly defeated by the South in the convention of 1844. He nevertheless remained in the Democratic party and adhered to the extreme anti-slavery wing.

Dr. Stanton, the father of Edwin, died when his son was but thirteen years of age, leaving his family in straitened circumstances. The young lad was called upon to help in the maintenance of the family and entered as clerk in a book store at the salary of four dollars a month. This employment took him from school, but he gave his evenings to study. At the store he read much and always in a direction that aided him in his preparatory studies to enter college. In 1831, when seventeen years of age, he entered Kenyon College, at Gambier, Ohio, after his four years of service in the book store. For want of means he was unable to complete his course and left the college in 1833.

Leaving the college he again entered the employ of his former master, but this time in a store at Columbus, Ohio. This he did in hope he might save enough to complete his college course. Failing in this he abandoned the store and gave himself up earnestly to the study of law. He pursued his studies with great vigor and in 1836 was admitted to practice. He began his professional life at Cadiz, in his native state. He was immediately successful and within one year was elected prosecuting attorney. He rapidly built up a lucrative practice and at the close of his term as prosecuting attorney removed from Cadiz to Steubenville, Ohio, and later to Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. This move was made necessary by his increasing practice in cases of great importance. He remained in Pittsburgh from 1847 until 1856, when he removed to Washington, District of Columbia, as much of his legal business was the argument of cases before the United States Supreme Court.

By this time his fame as a most successful lawyer had become broadcast and his practice and fees increased in proportion. In February, 1856, he was employed as special counsel for the United States in some of the most important litigation the government has ever been a party to. Not long after the acquisition of California a large number of claimants began to appear with grants of lands covering many thou-

sands of square miles of territory received, or alleged to have been received, from the government of Mexico. Honorable Jeremiah Black was Attorney General and it was his duty to defend the interests of the government. At his instigation, Mr. Stanton was employed as special counsel and sent to California. Fabricated claims to lands worth one hundred and fifty million dollars were to be investigated. Some of the claims were seemingly so backed up by official documents as to make them impregnable, but the untiring energy and industry of Mr. Stanton soon unearthed evidence that all the papers were forged, and that a widespread conspiracy existed, in which some of the high officials of Mexico were parties, to defraud the United States government out of millions of acres. Mr. Stanton, in the course of his investigations, discovered and brought to light many large volumes of the Mexican archives which had been secreted, the archives containing abundance of evidence that the claims were fraudulent.

In December, 1860, when President Buchanan's cabinet was broken up on account of differences over the duties and powers of the government in connection with the attempted secession of some of the states, Mr. Stanton was nominated and confirmed as Attorney General in place of Mr. Black, who had been transferred to the State Department. The cabinet had been divided on the question as to whether the President could use the army and navy for the purpose of enforcing the laws in states claiming to have seceded from the Union. When the question was first put to Attorney General Black he had given it as his opinion the President had no such authority, but before he became Secretary of State he changed his views.

The immediate cause of the disruption of the cabinet was the action of Major Anderson, in command of Charleston Harbor, in transferring his force from Fort Moultrie to Fort Sumter. The Southern members of the cabinet demanded he should be ordered back to the former fort. General Cass, Secretary of State, demanded the forts be reinforced, and when the President declined to take the decisive step the Secretary tendered his resignation, Attorney General Black being transferred to the State Department. When Mr. Stanton became a member of the cabinet the question was the ordering of Major Anderson back to Fort Moultrie. Mr. Stanton, as Attorney General, was vehement in asserting that Major Anderson should be sustained by all the powers of the government. At his first meeting with the cabinet he administered a stern rebuke to Mr. Floyd, who was Secretary of War, and declared the whole people of the North would stand by the President in resisting the demands of the seceded states, and declared that Secretary Floyd was a criminal in suggesting the withdrawal of the troops from Charleston Harbor. At this rebuke Secretary Floyd tendered his resignation of the War Department, which was at once accepted.

From the very beginning of the discussion over the right of secession Mr. Stanton had taken a firm stand in favor of the Union. So

vehement was he in protesting against anything that looked like surrender, or an admission that a state had the right to secede, that in the cabinet meeting referred to he said it would be a crime, equal to the crime of Benedict Arnold, to make such an admission, and that all who participated in it ought to be hanged as Andre had been, and that a President of the United States who would make an order for the return of Major Anderson to Fort Moultrie, under the circumstances, or for the evacuation of the forts in Charleston Harbor, would be subject to impeachment as guilty of treason. Mr. Stanton at once became the dominating influence in the cabinet. Secretary Black, and Mr. Holt, Postmaster General, were equally in earnest, but were not so vehement as Mr. Stanton, and it was vehemence that counted in the crisis.

Mr. Stanton retired from the cabinet on the inauguration of President Lincoln, but in his letters, speeches and conversations with others he displayed the same intense loyalty to the Union, and although he was a Democrat he was frequently consulted by such Republicans as Senator Sumner and Representative Thaddeus Stevens, the two congressional leaders of the Union men.

President Lincoln's first selection for Secretary of War was Simon Cameron, senator from Pennsylvania, but Mr. Cameron lacked in the energy and virility required at so grave a crisis, and in January, 1862, he was induced to resign. During the months following Mr. Lincoln's induction into the office of chief magistrate Mr. Stanton had frequently given expression to opinions adverse, even hostile, to the President, and hence was greatly astonished when the President, without previous consultation, sent his name to the Senate as Secretary of War. His nomination was at once confirmed and on January 20, 1862, he entered upon the onerous task as head of the War Department.

He at once made his energy and intense loyalty felt in every branch of the service. It was a heavy load, for he was not only called upon to organize troops but to fight a horde of fraudulent and greedy contractors who had entrenched themselves in the work of supplying the armies with clothing and munitions of all kinds. These men found no mercy at the hands of the new Secretary. His energy was so untiring and his anxiety at times so intense that he frequently remained at his desk for thirty hours without rest. In the meetings of the cabinet he was always urgent for the most vigorous prosecution of the war and had no patience with any dilatory tactics. He was ever insistent that commanders in the field should use their forces to meet and defeat the enemy. He was frequently accused of grave injustice and of exercising arbitrary authority, and was subjected to the most bitter abuse by some of the newspapers, but nothing could swerve him from his course.

One example of his indomitable energy was displayed in 1863, when he moved twenty-three thousand men with all their artillery, horses

and camp equipage from Washington to Chattanooga in less than seven days. General Rosecrans was in a desperate situation after his defeat at Chickamauga and large reinforcements were necessary to save his army. Secretary Stanton took two whole army corps from the army of General Meade, brought them to Washington and put them down at a point in communication with Chattanooga in less than seven days. They detrained at Chattanooga in such good condition that they could have gone at once into battle had it been necessary. While arranging for the transportation of these troops the Secretary did not leave his office for three days and nights.

The energy displayed by the Secretary in raising and equipping troops and in directing the vast operations by which they were furnished with the materials of war was fully equaled by that with which he caused them to be mustered out and sent to their homes when there was no further use for them in the field. General Lee had no sooner surrendered than Secretary Stanton began the work of relieving the country from the enormous burden of maintaining more than a million men in the service.

Secretary Stanton sustained President Lincoln in his contemplated issuance of a proclamation of emancipation and was among the first of the cabinet to urge the enlisting of colored men in the army. He also believed with the President that the seceded states should be brought back into the Union as quickly as possible, when loyal governments could be established therein, but favored holding such states under military government until such a time as the loyal citizens could number enough to maintain a civil government.

With the other members of the cabinet he was retained by President Johnson on his accession to the office of President after the assassination of Mr. Lincoln, but it was not long until differences between the President and the Secretary became acute. The Secretary sided with Congress on the question as to where the power of reconstructing the states rested, and to prevent the President from removing him from office Congress passed the Tenure of Office Act. The President did demand his resignation, which was refused. He then suspended him, appointing General Grant to act as Secretary *ad interim*. The Senate refused to consent to the suspension and Mr. Stanton once more took possession of the office. The President then issued an order removing him which Mr. Stanton refused to recognize. This attempted removal was the basis of the later impeachment proceedings against the President. When these proceedings failed Mr. Stanton resigned.

In September, 1869, when it was announced that Associate Justice Grier had resigned his seat on the Supreme Bench, President Grant at once sent to the Senate the name of Mr. Stanton as the successor of Justice Grier. The nomination was immediately confirmed without the usual reference to a committee. This was on December 20, but Mr. Stanton was then on his death bed. He died on the morning of Decem-

ber 24, 1869. His health had been precarious for some time. Having to make an argument in an important case then pending before the Supreme Court, on account of his weakened condition, the argument, which lasted for four days, was heard by Justice Swayne in the library of Mr. Stanton's residence. This was just two weeks before his death.

JOHN MCALLISTER SCHOFIELD

JOHN M. SCHOFIELD—Secretary of War from June 1, 1868, to March 12, 1869. Born in the town of Gerry, Chautauqua county, New York, September 29, 1831. Son of James and Caroline (McAllister) Schofield. Educated at West Point Military Academy. Married, in June, 1857, Miss Harriet Chambers; in June, 1891, Miss Georgie Kilbourne. Died at St. Augustine, Florida, March 14, 1906.

1849—Cadet at West Point.
1855—Professor at West Point Academy.
1861—Major of Volunteers.
1861—Chief of Staff of General Lyons.
1861—Brigadier General of Volunteers.
1863—Major General of Volunteers.
1864—Brigadier General in Regular Army.
1868—Secretary of War.
1869—Major General in Regular Army.
1888—Commander-in-chief of the Army.
1895—Lieutenant General in Regular Army.

Few Americans have had a more distinguished or more remarkable career than General John M. Schofield, Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Johnson. As a youth his ambition was to become a lawyer, with no thought of ever serving in the army, or that he had any taste for such service or any latent military abilities. Unexpectedly the way was opened for him to secure an education at the West Point Military Academy and he entered that institution merely as a stepping stone toward securing an education he might later utilize in the study and practice of law, graduating from that institution with the fixed determination to resign after serving the allotted time. Being made a professor at West Point, his whole career was changed, for he became enamored of teaching and abandoned his long held intention of practicing law. Taking a leave of absence for one year, intending to resign at the expiration of his leave, he entered upon private life. The war came and he felt it his duty to serve until its close, so he remained in the army, but still intending to leave for good when peace should be won. Promotions, however, came so fast he could not leave the service and remained in the army until, by special act of Congress, he was made lieutenant general.

General Schofield was the son of a Baptist clergyman, settled over a small church in Sinclairville, New York. When the future general and cabinet minister was twelve years old his parents removed to Illinois,

making Freeport their home. There the young lad had excellent opportunities for an education, as the public schools of Freeport were of a superior character. At the age of sixteen years he spent three months with a surveying party in the wilds of Wisconsin and at seventeen was a teacher of a district school in the little town of Oneco.

At that time his ambition was toward the law, but he desired a collegiate education before taking up his law studies and was saving his means and adding to them for the purpose of entering college. Among his friends was Thomas J. Turner, representative in Congress from the Freeport district, and suddenly, and unexpectedly to Mr. Schofield, the representative named him for a cadetship at West Point. Mr. Schofield was inclined to reject the offer, when his friend convinced him the education he would receive at West Point would be the best possible foundation for his future law studies. Mr. Schofield had saved a little money and with it had purchased a small plot of ground. This he now sold to procure his outfit for West Point, and reached the academy with but two dollars in his pocket.

His career at the academy was much like that of other cadets. He did not stand very high in his studies, and one year received one hundred and ninety-six demerit marks out of a possible two hundred. He graduated in 1853, and, as brevet second lieutenant, was assigned to duty at Fort Moultrie, in Charleston Harbor. In 1855 he was made a full lieutenant and assigned to duty as professor of philosophy at West Point.

His term of duty at West Point was five years. By that time he became convinced that teaching was his vocation, and at the end of five years applied for a leave of absence for one year, intending to resign at the end of the year. Leaving West Point he was appointed a professor in Washington College, St. Louis, Missouri. At that time his rank was that of first lieutenant. In a very short time he jumped from that rank to that of brigadier general without passing through any of the intermediate grades.

Only a short time before the expiration of his leave of absence the Civil War came, and he at once applied for active service. He was appointed mustering officer at St. Louis. The governor of the state refused to comply with the call of the President for troops, and it looked as if Lieutenant Schofield's duties as mustering officer would not be arduous, but Captain Lyon, who was in command of Jefferson Barracks, near St. Louis, was authorized to enlist volunteers. When the first regiment was ready for muster Lieutenant Schofield was elected major of the regiment and had the peculiar duty of mustering himself into the service as major of volunteers.

Captain Lyon was promoted to brigadier general and was preparing to engage in an active campaign. He appointed Major Schofield as his chief of staff on June 25, 1861, and that position he held until General Lyon was killed at the battle of Wilson's Creek. After that battle

General Fremont, who was then in command of Missouri, ordered Major Schofield to convert his regiment of infantry into one of artillery, and then a singular situation developed. There were no guns for the regiment and as fast as Major Schofield would secure a battery it would be diverted by General Fremont. At last, however, by some skillful maneuvering guns were obtained, but by that time Mr. Schofield had been promoted to brigadier general of volunteers. General Halleck superseded Fremont, and he assigned General Schofield to the command of all the militia of Missouri. He organized the militia into a strong and efficient force for the protection of the state. He was later placed in command of the District of Missouri and held that command until February, 1863, when he was ordered to join General Rosecrans at Murfreesboro, Tennessee. Early in May he was made a major general of volunteers and ordered back to the command of the District of Missouri.

This was a difficult position, owing to the factional quarrels among the Union men of the state; and because General Schofield would not take sides in those quarrels his confirmation as major general was hung up in the Senate for several months. As commander of the department General Schofield displayed rare tact and firmness, but he could not pacify the factions. In February, 1864, he was ordered to Knoxville, Tennessee, to take command of what was then known as the Army of the Ohio. In command of this army he took a prominent part in the campaign of General Sherman against Atlanta, winning the confidence of General Sherman.

When General Sherman determined upon his march to the sea, General Schofield suggested that his corps be sent back to aid General Thomas, as it had been greatly reduced by the casualties of the campaign, and if with General Thomas it could be filled up from the new regiments then being recruited. The suggestion was adopted. General Thomas, who was at Nashville, put General Schofield in command of all the troops in the field. It was while in this command he fought and won the battle of Franklin, one of the most important battles of the war. Joining General Thomas at Nashville, General Schofield took a prominent part in the battle of Nashville that completed the destruction of Hood's army began at Franklin. For his services at the battle of Franklin, General Schofield was made a brigadier general in the regular army.

On the termination of the campaign in the West, in 1864, General Grant ordered General Schofield and his corps to the East, when he was sent to North Carolina to again unite with General Sherman. General Schofield was appointed to the command of the Department of North Carolina. General Sherman's army was divided into three grand divisions, General Schofield being placed in command of the center.

When the President rejected the terms of surrender granted by General Sherman to General Johnston the two generals could not agree as

to the terms of a new pact, and General Schofield was called in and asked to write a new convention, which he did. On its presentation the commanders of the two hostile armies at once accepted it. This is known as the "Military Convention of April 20."

As commander of the Department of North Carolina, General Schofield on April 27, 1865, issued an order announcing that under the proclamation of the President all slaves were free and that it was the duty of the army to maintain that freedom, but that it would not support the former slaves in idleness. He cautioned the slaves not to congregate in towns and cities, but to work, if they desired to do so, for their old masters on such reasonable terms as might be agreed upon. This order exercised great influence in maintaining order in his department. He relinquished the command in June, 1865.

At that time General Grant was wanting to be ready with a large force to drive the French from Mexico, if they would not retire without, and he appointed General Schofield to go South ready to organize an army of the old Union and Confederate soldiers to assist the Mexicans when an opportunity came. Mr. Seward, Secretary of State, was opposed to doing anything openly that would look like armed intervention and induced the President to send General Schofield to France, with instructions, if an opportunity came, to impress upon Emperor Napoleon that the United States did not look with friendly eyes on the presence of a French army near her own borders. In accordance with this General Schofield sailed for France in November, 1865, remaining abroad until May of the following year, failing to accomplish anything.

Soon after his return to the United States he was placed in command of the Department of the Potomac, which included the state of Virginia. When Mr. Stanton resigned the position of Secretary of War the place was tendered to General Schofield, who accepted, entering upon the discharge of his duties June 1, 1868. He remained at the head of the War Department until a few days after the inauguration of President Grant. When Sheridan was made lieutenant general President Grant promoted Schofield to the major generalcy vacated by Sheridan.

General Schofield commanded several departments during the next few years and, in 1888, became commander-in-chief of the army. In September, 1895, he was retired, Congress, by a special act, giving him the rank of lieutenant general. After his retirement General Schofield wrote an interesting volume of his forty-six years' experience in the army.

JOHN AARON RAWLINS

JOHN A. RAWLINS—Secretary of War from March 12, 1869, to September 6, 1869. Born in East Galena, Illinois, February 13, 1831. Son of James D. Rawlins. Self-educated. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, September 6, 1869.

1861—Captain and Assistant Adjutant General.
1862—Lieutenant Colonel of Volunteers.
1863—Brigadier General of Volunteers.
1865—Brigadier General in Regular Army.
1869—Secretary of War.

The future distinguished chief of staff of the commanding general of all the armies was born on a farm and during his boyhood worked on a farm and in a charcoal pit. He was self-taught until he was of age. With great application and amid many difficulties he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1850. In politics he was a Democrat and took part in the local political campaigns.

A warm friend and admirer of Hon. Stephen A. Douglas, he became an ardent Union man when secession loomed up. By a speech made at a mass meeting in Galena, presided over by Captain Grant, he attracted the attention of the future general and President, and when Mr. Grant was made a brigadier general he gave the young and patriotic lawyer a place on his staff. Through all the campaigns of General Grant Mr. Rawlins acted as his efficient chief of staff, being promoted for his services until he reached the grade of brigadier general in the regular army.

As chief of staff his services to General Grant and to the country were almost invaluable, especially when General Grant was in command of all the armies. When General Grant became President he desired to have General Rawlins with him in a confidential capacity and nominated him for Secretary of War. The nomination was confirmed on the day his name was sent to the Senate. He entered at once upon the discharge of his duties, but the exposures he had undergone during the war had undermined his health, which had never been robust, and he died a few months after becoming Secretary of War. General Rawlins was a man of great executive and administrative ability.

WILLIAM WORTH BELKNAP

WILLIAM W. BELKNAP—Secretary of War from November 1, 1869, to March 2, 1876. Born in Newburg, New York, September 22, 1829. Son of General William G. Belknap. Educated at Princeton College. Married Miss Reid, Miss Carita Tomlinson, Mrs. Bower. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, October 12, 1890.

1857—Member Iowa Legislature.
1865—Internal Revenue Collector for Iowa.
1869—Secretary of War.

The father of W. W. Belknap, the future Secretary of War, was a distinguished general during the war with Mexico. W. W., the son, graduated at Princeton College and then studied law. He was admitted to the bar in 1851, and removed to Keokuk, Iowa. He soon became prominent in his profession. He was a Democrat in politics and as

such was elected to the Iowa Legislature. He was an ardent Union man and at the outbreak of the Civil War entered the military service as major of the fifteenth Iowa regiment of volunteers. He served throughout the war with distinction, winning high praise from Generals Grant, Sherman and Thomas. He was successively promoted until at the close of the war he was in command of a division. Every promotion was given for some special act of bravery. He was severely wounded at the battle of Shiloh, but refused to leave the field until the battle was over.

After the close of the war he returned to Iowa to again engage in the practice of his profession, and in 1865 was made internal revenue collector for Iowa. In this office he maintained a high record for efficiency. When Secretary of War Rawlins died President Grant selected General Belknap for head of the War Department. He displayed energy and tact in the discharge of his duties, but in 1876 a great scandal developed. He was charged with selling post-traderships. When the charge was made it caused a wide sensation and the House of Representatives at once began an investigation. Mr. Belknap resigned from the cabinet. After his resignation the House impeached him before the Senate, the first and main specification of the article of impeachment charging him with receiving on November 2, 1870, from Caleb P. Marsh, the sum of fifteen hundred dollars in consideration of having appointed John S. Evans post-trader at Fort Sill. The trial lasted for some time before the Senate, resulting in a vote of thirty-five guilty and twenty-five not guilty; most of those voting not guilty did so on the ground that Mr. Belknap having resigned his office before the articles of impeachment had been found the Senate no longer had any jurisdiction in the case.

It was claimed by the friends of the Secretary that the money was paid to a member of the family of Mr. Belknap and that he had no knowledge of the transaction. After leaving the cabinet Mr. Belknap remained in Washington in the practice of his profession.

ALPHONSO TAFT

ALPHONSO TAFT—Secretary of War from March 11, 1876, to May 31, 1876; Attorney General from June 1, 1876, to March 11, 1877. Born in Townshend, Vermont, November 15, 1814. Son of Peter R. and Sylva (Howard) Taft. Educated at Yale College. Married, in 1841, Fannie Philips; in 1854, Louisa M. Torry. Died at San Diego, California, May 21, 1891.

1865—Judge of Cincinnati Superior Court.
1876—Secretary of War.
1876—Attorney General of the United States.
1882—Minister to Austria.
1884—Minister to Russia.

Mr. Taft was brought up on a farm and his early education was such only as he could obtain in the country schools. To assist himself in ob-

taining an education he taught school, and returned for a time to that vocation after being graduated from Yale College in 1833. While teaching school he studied law and in 1838 was admitted to the bar.

He removed to Ohio, making Cincinnati his home. For the next twenty-five years he was one of the leading lawyers at the Cincinnati bar. He served for several years as judge of the Cincinnati Superior Court, a position that later was filled by his son, William H., afterward Secretary of War and President of the United States.

On the resignation of the War Department by Secretary Belknap, President Grant appointed Mr. Taft as Secretary of War, but two months later transferred him to the office of Attorney General. His service in the War Department was so short that he had little opportunity to make a record. As Attorney General he served about nine months. In 1882 President Arthur sent him as minister to Austria and two years later to Russia.

JAMES DONALD CAMERON

JAMES D. CAMERON—Secretary of War from June 1, 1876, to March 11, 1877. Born at Middletown, Pennsylvania, May 14, 1833. Son of Simon Cameron. Educated at Princeton College. Married Mary McCormick.

1876—Secretary of War.
1877—United States Senator.

After graduating from Princeton College in 1853, Mr. Cameron at once entered upon a business career, first as clerk, then cashier, and later president of a leading banking institution of Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. He early displayed great business ability and engaged in many business enterprises and, in 1863, was elected president of the Northern Central Railroad of Pennsylvania, which he brought to great efficiency as a carrying company.

His father was a leading politician of the state and James D. became deeply interested in political matters, though never seeking office. In managing a number of large business enterprises and as president of the Northern Central Railroad he displayed a large talent for organization and in handling men and complicated affairs. During the last year or two of the second administration of President Grant the War Department got into great confusion and the President desired to secure for the head of the department a man of large business capacity and he selected Mr. Cameron.

Secretary Cameron remained at the head of the department but a few months, but in that short time brought about a number of reforms and restored amicable relations between the department and the head of the army. He materially reduced expenses, yet made the department and the army more efficient.

In 1877 his father, who was a senator from Pennsylvania, resigned his seat in the Senate and James D. was elected to the vacancy. In the

Senate Mr. Cameron was always classed among the "stalwarts" and was a constant advocate of a high protective tariff. He was a great admirer of General Grant and was one of the leaders in the movement in 1880 to nominate the general for a third term. Mr. Cameron remained in the Senate until March 3, 1897. Leaving the Senate he again engaged in various business enterprises at Harrisburg.

GEORGE WASHINGTON MCCRARY

GEORGE W. MCCRARY—Secretary of War from March 12, 1877, to December 11, 1879. Born in Evansville, Indiana, August 29, 1835. Educated in the common schools. Died in St. Joseph, Missouri, June 23, 1890.

1857—Member Iowa Legislature.
1861—Member Iowa Senate.
1866—Member national House of Representatives.
1877—Secretary of War.
1879—United State Judge for Eighth Circuit.

While he was still but a child the parents of Mr. McCrary removed from Indiana to Iowa. There the boy worked on a farm, attending the schools of the neighborhood when he had opportunity. He was ambitious and began the study of the law and was admitted to the bar in 1856. The next year he was sent to the Iowa House of Representatives. He was a member of the Iowa Senate during the Civil War and throughout the whole period was chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs. As chairman of that committee he rendered great service to the governor in raising and organizing troops for the front.

He became a member of Congress in 1867 and remained a member of the House for ten years. He early took rank among the ablest of the Republican members. He framed the bill providing for the appointment of an electoral commission to pass upon the disputed election between Mr. Tilden and Mr. Hayes in 1877.

When Mr. Hayes became President he desired to appoint Mr. McCrary Attorney General in his cabinet, but just before the names of the new cabinet were sent to the Senate the President learned that Mr. McCrary had, as a member of the House, expressed an opinion favorable to the notorious McGarrahan claim, and as the claim was likely to be contested before the courts it was thought best to have as Attorney General someone who had not favored the claim; so Mr. McCrary was made Secretary of War. This was in the nature of a disappointment to Mr. McCrary, as he believed his legal learning fitted him for head of the Department of Justice.

As Secretary of War his administration was characterized by energy and by executive ability, especially in dealing with the Indian question. In 1879 he was appointed judge of the eighth circuit, but resigned the position in 1884 to become general counsel for the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railroad Company.

ALEXANDER RAMSEY

ALEXANDER RAMSEY—Secretary of War from December 12, 1879, to March 10, 1881. Born near Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, September 8, 1815. Son of Thomas and Elizabeth (Kelker) Ramsey. Educated at Lafayette College. Married, September 10, 1845, Anna Earl. Died in St. Paul, Minnesota, April 23, 1903.

1843—Member of national House of Representatives.
1849—Territorial Governor of Minnesota.
1859—Governor of the State of Minnesota.
1863—United States Senator.
1879—Secretary of War.
1882—Member of Utah Commission.

After leaving college Mr. Ramsey studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1839, beginning the practice of his profession at Harrisburg. He became active in politics and at the age of twenty-seven was elected as a Whig to the national House of Representatives. He was among those who opposed the annexation of Texas. He served two terms in the House, and in 1849, shortly after becoming President, General Taylor appointed Mr. Ramsey governor of the newly formed territory of Minnesota.

After his term as governor expired Mr. Ramsey remained in Minnesota. He had been very influential in shaping the destinies of the territory and had great popularity among the people. He was one of the organizers of the Republican party in the Northwest and was elected governor of the state in 1859. He was one of the most energetic and efficient of the war governors of the North during the Civil War, until he was elected to the United States Senate in 1863. He served in the Senate from March 4, 1863, to March 3, 1875.

In the Senate he cordially supported the administration of President Lincoln and afterwards that of President Grant. He was appointed Secretary of War by President Hayes, after the resignation of Secretary McCrary, and served through the remainder of the administration of Mr. Hayes.

ROBERT TODD LINCOLN

ROBERT T. LINCOLN—Secretary of War from March 11, 1881, to March 6, 1885. Born in Springfield, Illinois, August 1, 1843. Son of Abraham and Mary (Todd) Lincoln. Educated at Harvard College. Married Mary Harlan.

1881—Secretary of War.
1889—Minister to England.

Robert T. Lincoln received a thorough educational training. At the age of ten years he entered the State University of Illinois, where he remained for four years. He then took a course at Phillips Academy, at Exeter, New Hampshire. From the academy he took a collegiate

course at Harvard College, graduating in 1864. Leaving college he had a desire to enter the army and was appointed an aide to General Grant with the rank of captain. He took part in the later campaigns of the Army of the Potomac. After the close of the war he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1867.

Mr. Lincoln did not take a prominent part in political affairs, but as a Republican he supported General Grant, and after him the succeeding Republican candidates. He was one of those who favored General Grant for a third term in 1880. When General Garfield became President March 4, 1881, he tendered to Mr. Lincoln the war portfolio. Mr. Lincoln hesitated for some time about accepting the place, but finally assumed the duties of the office. He served through the administrations of Presidents Garfield and Arthur, being the only member of President Garfield's cabinet retained by President Arthur.

His administration was very popular with the army, he displaying much administrative ability. In 1884 his name was largely canvassed as an available candidate for the presidency by the Republicans, especially by those who were unfavorable to Mr. Blaine. Leaving the cabinet at the close of President Arthur's administration Mr. Lincoln returned to Chicago to resume his law practice.

In 1889 President Benjamin Harrison sent him as minister to England. He made a most excellent record and was very popular at the British court. Returning to the United States he became first the general counsel and then the president of the Pullman Palace Car Company.

WILLIAM CROWNINSHIELD ENDICOTT

WILLIAM C. ENDICOTT—Secretary of War from March 7, 1885, to March 5, 1889. Born in Salem, Massachusetts, November 19, 1826. Educated at Harvard College. Married, December 13, 1859, Ellen Peabody.

1873—Associate Justice of the Massachusetts Supreme Court.
1885—Secretary of War.

For more than two centuries the Endicott family has been one of the prominent families of Massachusetts. William C. was a direct descendant of John Endicott, the famous colonial governor. After graduating from Harvard College in 1847 Mr. Endicott studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1850. He began the practice of his profession in his native town. He rapidly rose to eminence as a lawyer and in 1873 was made one of the associate justices of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts. As a jurist he became as eminent as he had been as an attorney.

A Democrat, he took an interest in state and national affairs, but could not be said to be a politician in any sense of the word. He did

not aspire to any office unless it was one connected with his chosen profession. When Mr. Cleveland was making up his cabinet for his first term he selected Mr. Endicott for Secretary of War and for four years the Massachusetts jurist was at the head of that important executive department of the government.

As Secretary of War his administration was characterized by firmness and a steady pressure to increase the efficiency of the army and raise its morale. He was especially interested in the welfare of the enlisted men. After the close of President Cleveland's administration Mr. Endicott returned to his home in Massachusetts.

REDFIELD PROCTOR

REDFIELD PROCTOR—Secretary of War from March 6, 1889, to December 5, 1891. Born in Proctorsville, Vermont, June 1, 1831. Son of Jabez and Betsey (Parker) Proctor. Educated at Dartmouth College. Married, May 26, 1858, Emily J. Dutton. Died in Washington city, March 4, 1908.

1867—Member Vermont Legislature.
1874—Member Vermont Senate.
1874—Lieutenant Governor of Vermont.
1878—Governor of Vermont.
1888—Member Vermont Legislature.
1889—Secretary of War.
1891—United States Senator.

Mr. Proctor graduated from Dartmouth College in 1851 and from the Albany Law School in 1859. He was an ardent lover of the Union and in 1860 supported Mr. Lincoln for the presidency. When the election of Mr. Lincoln brought on the Civil War Mr. Proctor entered the service of the Union as quartermaster of a regiment of Vermont volunteers. He served on the staff of General William F. Smith as brigade and then as division quartermaster. Later he became colonel of the fifteenth Vermont regiment. His health failing, he returned to Vermont in 1863.

He became interested in the development of the marble industry of the state and did much in that line to increase the prosperity of Vermont. He was keenly interested in the affairs of the state and served several terms in both houses of the Vermont Legislature and, in 1878, became governor of the state. As governor he succeeded in largely reducing the expenses of the state and introduced a number of reforms in the various institutions of the state.

He was regarded as the leading Republican of the state and headed the delegation of the state to the Republican National Conventions of 1884 and 1888. In the latter convention he supported General Benjamin Harrison for the presidential nomination. When General Harrison became President he nominated Governor Proctor for Secretary of

War. As head of the War Department he introduced a number of reforms in the method of transacting the business of the department and, like his immediate predecessor, paid especial attention to bettering the condition of enlisted men. He also gave great attention to coast defenses and to the introduction of modern guns.

In 1891 he was appointed United States Senator to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of George F. Edmunds. He served from November 7, 1891, until his death. In the Senate he was classed as one of the conservatives, but was a high protectionist on the tariff question.

STEPHEN BENTON ELKINS

STEPHEN B. ELKINS—Secretary of War from December 24, 1891, to March 6, 1893. Born in Perry county, Ohio, September 26, 1841. Educated at Missouri University. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, January 5, 1911.

1864—Member New Mexico Territorial Legislature.
1866—Attorney General of Territory of New Mexico.
1868—United States Attorney for New Mexico.
1873—Delegate in Congress from New Mexico.
1891—Secretary of War.
1895—United States Senator from West Virginia.

While he was but a lad the family of Mr. Elkins removed from Ohio to Missouri. After receiving a preparatory education at the common schools Stephen B. entered the Missouri University, graduating in 1860. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1864.

He removed to the territory of New Mexico to engage in the practice of his profession, mastering the Spanish language, that language being the common language of the people of the territory. His success was early apparent. He was elected a member of the territorial legislature the same year that he became a citizen and served two terms. Two years later he was made attorney general of the territory and, in 1868, was appointed United States attorney. As attorney for the United States he was successful in securing the conviction of a number of noted criminals.

In 1873 he was sent to Congress as a delegate from the territory, and was elected for a second term. By this time he had become interested in some mining property in West Virginia and made that state his home. He took an active interest in political affairs and became the leader of the Republicans of the state. He invested largely in mines and railroad property and did much to develop the great natural resources of West Virginia, thereby attaining a great influence with the people.

He headed the West Virginia delegation to the Republican National Convention of 1888 and supported General Harrison for the nomination. When Secretary Proctor resigned the War Department Mr.

Elkins was nominated for the vacant place. He served as head of the War Department until the close of the administration of President Harrison.

In 1895 he was elected to the United States Senate by the legislature of West Virginia and served until his death in 1911. In the Senate he devoted himself especially to legislation connected with railroad transportation and was author of the "Elkins Anti-Rebate Law" that is still on the statute books and under which the rebate system has been abolished. He was also largely instrumental in the establishment of the Interstate Commerce Commission. He was always classed among the high protective tariff Republicans.

DANIEL SCOTT LAMONT

DANIEL S. LAMONT—Secretary of War from March 7, 1893, to March 5, 1897. Born in Cortlandville, New York, February 9, 1851. Son of John B. and Elizabeth (Scott) Lamont. Educated at Union College.

1885—Private Secretary of President Cleveland.
1893—Secretary of War.

After leaving college Mr. Lamont became a member of the newspaper profession, first as legislative reporter and later managing editor of the Albany *Argus*. In this capacity he won the confidence and friendship of Grover Cleveland, and when Mr. Cleveland became governor of New York in 1883, he selected Mr. Lamont as his private secretary.

Mr. Lamont developed great tact in conducting the many duties of that trying position and displayed political skill. In 1885, when Governor Cleveland became President of the United States, he called Mr. Lamont to Washington as his private and confidential secretary. In this position Mr. Lamont won the confidence and respect of the members of Congress of all parties who had business with the chief executive. He became, in fact, very popular with all persons visiting the executive mansion.

On entering upon his second term in 1893, President Cleveland gave his former private secretary a place in his cabinet as Secretary of War, where he soon displayed great executive ability and made his administration popular with the army and with Congress. On leaving the cabinet at the close of the administration of President Cleveland, Mr. Lamont went to New York city, where he engaged in business.

RUSSELL ALEXANDER ALGER

RUSSELL A. ALGER—Secretary of War from March 6, 1897, to August 1, 1899. Born in Medina county, Ohio, February 27, 1836. Son of Russell and Caroline (Moulton) Alger. Educated at district schools. Married, April, 1861, Annette Henry. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, January 24, 1907.

1863—Colonel Fifth Michigan Cavalry.
1865—Brevet Brigadier General of Volunteers.
1884—Governor of Michigan.
1897—Secretary of War.
1902—United States Senator.

Mr. Alger came from old revolutionary stock. His father was one of the earliest settlers of the Western Reserve in Ohio, and Russell was born in a log cabin on a farm. At the age of twelve years he was left an orphan with a younger brother and sister to care for. In 1848 and 1849 he worked on a farm for his board and clothing, being permitted to attend a country school three months in each year. He continued his farm work for several years at increasing wages until his wage reached twenty dollars per month. For a few months he attended an academy and then taught school. As he had opportunity he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1859, removing to Grand Rapids, Michigan.

At Grand Rapids Mr. Alger, in addition to practicing his profession, became largely interested in the lumber business. The clouds of the Civil War were overshadowing the country and Mr. Alger did what he could to encourage the loyal sentiment in Michigan. When active recruiting began for the Union Army he was made a captain in the second Michigan cavalry. While connected with this regiment he was largely instrumental in opening active field service to Philip Sheridan, who became one of the great commanders of the war. Sheridan was then a captain in the regular army, serving as headquarters quartermaster on the staff of General Halleck. The colonel of the second Michigan was promoted to a brigadier general, and Captain Alger induced the governor of the state to appoint Sheridan colonel of the regiment.

Mr. Alger greatly distinguished himself during the war, participating in more than sixty battles and engagements. He was promoted through all the grades until he became brevet major general. He commanded a brigade under General Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley campaign and until the close of the war. At the close of the war General Alger returned to Michigan and engaged extensively in the lumber business. In 1884 he was elected governor of the state, declining a renomination for a second term. In the Republican National Convention of 1888 he was a prominent candidate for the presidential nomination, receiving on some ballots one hundred and forty-two votes. In 1889 he was unanimously elected commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic.

When Mr. McKinley became President in 1897 he appointed General Alger as Secretary of War. He was at the head of the War Department during a part of the war with Spain. He encountered much adverse criticism and became involved in a controversy with General Miles, commander-in-chief of the army. Tired by the criticisms of his administration Secretary Alger resigned on August 1, 1898. In 1902 he was appointed to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy, and was later elected his own successor, remaining in the Senate until his death

WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT

WILLIAM H. TAFT—Secretary of War from February 1, 1904, to June 29, 1908. Born in Cincinnati, Ohio, September 15, 1857. Son of Alphonso and Louise M. (Torrey) Taft. Educated at Yale University. Married, June 19, 1886, Miss Helen Herron.

1881—Assistant Prosecuting Attorney of Hamilton county, Ohio.
1882—Collector of Internal Revenue of First Ohio District.
1885—Assistant County Solicitor of Hamilton county.
1887—Judge of Hamilton County Superior Court.
1890—Solicitor General of the United States.
1892—Judge of United States Court, Sixth Circuit.
1900—President of United States Philippine Commission.
1901—Governor of Philippine Islands.
1904—Secretary of War.
1909—President of the United States.
1921—Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

With an intermission from 1913 to 1921, William Howard Taft has been in the public service since 1881. His father was a prominent lawyer and judge, this prestige giving the son more than the ordinary start in his chosen profession—the law. His father also served as Attorney General and Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Grant. After a course in the public schools and the Woodward High School of Cincinnati, William Howard went to Yale University, graduating from that institution in 1878 with the degree of B.A.

Leaving the university he at once entered the Cincinnati College of Law, graduating with the degree of B.L. in 1880. At Yale and at the College of Law Mr. Taft took a high place in his class and was regarded as giving promise for his future public greatness. A few months after graduating from the law college he was appointed assistant prosecuting attorney for Hamilton county, Ohio, embracing Cincinnati. A year later he took his first political office, that of collector of internal revenue for the first Ohio collection district. He held this position but a few months, resigning to return to the practice of law.

So well was his reputation as a lawyer established that in 1887 Governor Foraker appointed him judge of the Superior Court of Cincinnati. The next year he was elected to the same office for a term of five years. In 1890 President Harrison called him to Washington to become solicitor general of the United States and he entered upon that office in February, 1890. Two years later President Harrison appointed him judge for the Sixth United States Circuit.

Presiding over that court he rendered several important opinions which later became historical. While serving upon the bench he became dean of the law department of the University of Cincinnati. The treaty of peace with Spain opened out new duties for the United States in connection with the insular possessions ceded to the United States, and in 1890 Judge Taft resigned from the bench, and from the deanship of the university, to become president of the United States Philip-

pine Commission. On July 4, 1901, President McKinley appointed him governor of the Philippine Islands.

It was a most trying position, calling for infinite tact and patience and almost unceasing labor. Resistance to the United States authority was still rampant in the islands and there were continual disputes between foreign residents. Amid all these Governor Taft had to organize and put in operation a new system of laws among a people who hitherto had regarded all laws as a restraint upon their liberties. The friars had been the cause of much of the trouble in the islands and owned large tracts of lands.

The arduous labors of the governorship broke down the health of Governor Taft and four months after taking the office he was compelled to turn it over to Vice Governor Wright and return to the United States to recruit his health. While in the United States he appeared before a congressional committee to give light on the Philippine question. His statement to the committee was so full and complete and characterized by such knowledge of the situation that it made a deep impression on the committee and on Congress.

Before returning to the Philippines to resume his office as governor, at the direction of President Roosevelt he visited Rome, in 1902, to confer with the Pope regarding the purchase of the so-called friar lands. After several meetings with the Board of Cardinals an agreement was reached by which the troublesome question was settled amicably.

On January 11, 1904, President Roosevelt nominated him as Secretary of War to succeed Elihu Root, who had resigned to accept a seat in the United States Senate. The country was just entering on the construction of the Panama Canal, a question in which Secretary Taft took a deep interest. To push along this great work he bent every energy, and in December, 1904, he visited the isthmus to confer with the Panaman authorities relating to many matters connected with the Canal Zone. The insular possessions coming under the jurisdiction of the War Department, Secretary Taft, in the summer of 1905, visited the Philippine Islands accompanied by a party of senators and representatives. He made a tour of inspection, correcting some abuses that had grown up in the administration of the government of the islands. While on this trip he visited Japan and strengthened the good feelings existing between the island kingdom and the United States.

In 1906 trouble broke out in Cuba and Secretary Taft visited the island in an endeavor to arrange peace between the contending factions, for a time acting as provisional governor. In 1907 he again visited Cuba, going also to Porto Rico and Panama, and in the fall of that year made his second visit to the Philippines for the purpose of inaugurating the Philippine Assembly.

In January, 1909, he made a third visit to the Canal Zone, this time taking with him a board of engineers. This was but a short time before his inauguration as President of the United States. Early in 1908 it

became known that Secretary Taft was favored by President Roosevelt for the Republican presidential nomination, and the ardent and energetic support of the administration soon made him the favored candidate and his nomination at the convention was obtained readily. His Democratic opponent was William J. Bryan. The electoral vote standing: For Taft, 321; for Bryan, 162.

On March 4, 1909, Mr. Taft became President of the United States. His administration was one of prosperity throughout the country and peace with all foreign nations. As President he was especially commended for his judicial appointments. Under his administration the work of construction of the Isthmian Canal was pushed with energy.

In 1912 he was a candidate for the nomination to succeed himself. The convention was a stormy one, finally breaking into two factions, Mr. Taft being nominated by one and former President Roosevelt by the other. The succeeding political campaign was characterized by intense bitterness between the two factions. The election resulted in giving Woodrow Wilson, the Democratic candidate, 435 electoral votes, Taft 8, and Roosevelt 88. Mr. Taft carried but two states, Utah and Vermont.

On retiring from the presidency Mr. Taft became a member of the faculty of Yale University. On the death of Chief Justice White President Harding named Mr. Taft as his successor.

LUKE E. WRIGHT

LUKE E. WRIGHT—Secretary of War from July 1, 1908, to March 4, 1909. Born in Tennessee in 1846. Son of Archibald Wright. Married Miss Kate Semmes.

1900—Member of the United States Philippine Commission.
1904—Civil Governor of the Philippines.
1906—Ambassador to Japan.
1908—Secretary of War.

By profession Mr. Wright was a lawyer and practiced in Memphis, Tennessee. He stood near the head of the bar and for ten years was attorney general of Tennessee. His father had been chief justice of the Tennessee Supreme Court.

When the country became involved in a war with Spain three of the sons of Mr. Wright entered the army and Mr. Wright himself gave much time to the support of the government. When the war was over and the United States was about to take possession of the Philippine Islands, Mr. Wright was appointed a member of the commission to organize a government for our new possessions in the far-off Pacific. He was appointed the first civil governor and rendered valuable service in pacifying the native opponents to the American rule. In 1906 he was made ambassador to Japan, but relinquished that post to accept a seat in the cabinet of President Roosevelt as Secretary of War to succeed Secretary Taft. He served the remainder of the term of President Roosevelt and continued for one year under President Taft.

JACOB MCGAVOK DICKINSON

JACOB MCGAVOK DICKINSON—Secretary of War from March 5, 1909, to May 10, 1911. Born at Columbus, Mississippi, January 20, 1857. Son of Henry and Anna (McGavok) Dickinson. Educated at University of Nashville; studied law at Columbia College, New York; University of Leipsic, and L'Ecole deDroit, Paris, France. Married, April 20, 1876, Martha Overton.

1885—Assistant Attorney General of the United States.
1903—Counsel for the United States before Alaskan Boundary Tribunal.
1909—Secretary of War.

After completing his course of study in this country Mr. Dickinson went to Europe and gave some years to a course at the celebrated University of Leipsic and at the equally famous educational institution L'Ecole deDroit, at Paris. When he returned to America he was fully equipped to follow his chosen profession. He was admitted to the bar in 1874 and at once began the practice at Nashville, Tennessee, later removing to Chicago.

His success at the bar was almost immediate and he took a high place among the members of his profession not only in Chicago but throughout the country.

When President Cleveland came into power Mr. Dickinson was asked to take a place in his administration as Assistant Attorney General. This brought him into national prominence. His learning in the law and his activity in pursuing matters placed before him materially assisted in raising the Department of Justice to a high standing.

In 1903 he was chosen to represent the United States, as counsel, before the tribunal to settle the dispute as to the boundary of Alaska. He was as successful there as he had been in the Department of Justice. When President Taft assumed the reins of government he selected Mr. Dickinson as one of his cabinet, nominating him for Secretary of War. At that time the world was at peace and the work of the department was mere routine. This did not suit the active mind of Mr. Dickinson and after a service of a little more than two years he resigned the office and returned to the practice of his profession.

HENRY LEWIS STIMSON

HENRY LEWIS STIMSON—Secretary of War from May 16, 1911, to March 4, 1913. Born in New York, September 21, 1867. Son of Lewis Atterbury and Candace (Wheeler) Stimson. Educated at Yale College and Harvard University. Married, July 6, 1893, Mabel Wellington White.

1906—United States Attorney for Southern District of New York.
1910—Unsuccessful Republican candidate for Governor of New York.
1911—Secretary of War.
1917—Judge Advocate of the United States Navy.

Mr. Stimson was a practicing attorney in New York when called into the cabinet by President Taft as Secretary of War to fill a vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Secretary Dickinson. While at the head of the Department of War trouble was brewing in Mexico. It looked as if the United States might be drawn into hostile relations with that republic and Mr. Stimson became an earnest advocate of preparedness. As usual, nothing was done in that direction, but the trouble was left for the successor of President Taft to handle.

Leaving the service of the government Mr. Stimson returned to the practice of his profession in New York. When the war broke out in Europe Mr. Stimson again became once more an earnest advocate of preparedness on the part of the United States, and was appointed judge advocate in the navy. When the United States entered into the war he joined the forces in France as colonel of the three hundred and fifth regiment and served until the armistice.

LINDLEY MILLER GARRISON

LINDLEY MILLER GARRISON—Secretary of War from March 5, 1913, to February 10, 1916. Born at Camden, New Jersey, November 28, 1864. Son of Rev. Joseph F. and Elizabeth V.(Grant) Garrison. Educated at Ruthven College and Harvard University. Married, June 30, 1900, Miss Maria Margaret Hildebrun.

1908—Vice Chancellor of the State of New Jersey.
1913—Secretary of War.

When called into his cabinet by President Wilson Mr. Garrison was vice chancellor of New Jersey, an office he held while Mr. Wilson was governor of the state. As an attorney Mr. Garrison had won distinction before the courts and among his fellow-practitioners. He was elevated to the office of vice chancellor of the state and became a warm admirer and supporter of Governor Wilson. He had an ambition to reach the office of chancellor and had no thought of a cabinet position.

Mr. Garrison could hardly be called a politician, though always manifesting great interest in the policies of the government. He had been trained in the Jeffersonian theories of government and was an ardent Democrat, though never a strong partisan. New Jersey is a state where it is difficult to be a lawyer and refrain from delving to some extent in party politics. It is also a state of many and varied industrial and commercial interests, all of which have a tendency to make its people more or less partisan in political affairs.

When Mr. Wilson entered upon the presidency the United States was at peace, but matters were threatening between this country and Mexico owing to the repeated revolutions in that country, each involving to some extent the interests of American citizens. The administration preceding that of Mr. Wilson left to him some very knotty and perplexing problems with Mexico to solve. Huerta had just become presi-

dent of Mexico through the medium of assassination, as President Wilson believed, and he would not recognize his government.

Trouble soon came. Our army was on a peace footing and there had been many clamors among the people for a still greater reduction of our armed force, both army and navy. Notwithstanding the troubled conditions with Mexico nothing had been done toward placing it on a footing that might be and would be required if we should be compelled to interfere in Mexico.

War was a probability and, in the view of many, would soon come, as whatever government might be in power in Mexico the rights of American citizens continued to be ignored, and there had been raids by Mexican bandits across the border, when robbery and murder occurred.

Mr. Garrison was a man of high executive ability, an ardent American, believing in protecting American citizens in all parts of the world. He was equally ardent in his advocacy of preparedness and desired to put the army in a condition to be ready for any emergency. A sort of quasi war did soon develop. Villa, at the head of a band of Mexican bandits, repeatedly raided towns on this side of the border. In addition to this some American sailors were arrested in Vera Cruz, although they were members of the crew of an American naval vessel. For this President Wilson demanded reparation and also that President Huerta resign his office. Mexico was invaded in two directions.

During these operations friction began to develop between the President and Secretary Garrison.

War was also raging in Europe and there were many who believed the United States would become involved. Secretary Garrison continued to urge preparedness both in private conference with members of Congress and in public speech. All this only added to the friction between him and his chief. On February 10, 1916, Mr. Garrison suddenly tendered his resignation and immediately took a train for his home at Camden.

Returning to Camden Mr. Garrison resumed the practice of his profession.

NEWTON DIEL BAKER

NEWTON DIEL BAKER—Secretary of War from March 7, 1916, to March 4, 1921. Born at Martinsburg, West Virginia, December 3, 1871. Son of Newton Diel and Mary (Dukehart) Baker. Educated at Johns Hopkins University and Washington and Lee University. Married, July 5, 1902, Miss Elizabeth Leopold.

1896—Private Secretary of Postmaster General Wilson.
1902—City Solicitor of the City of Cleveland.
1912—Mayor of Cleveland.
1914—Mayor of Cleveland.
1916—Secretary of War.

Lindley M. Garrison, President Wilson's first Secretary of War, was a most earnest advocate of preparedness. Newton D. Baker, his successor, was just as ardent a pacifist, yet he headed the Department of War through the most gigantic struggle in which this country has been involved. As a young man Mr. Baker was a student at Johns Hopkins University, where Woodrow Wilson, afterwards President, was one of the instructors. It was there the friendship between the two began.

After practicing his profession at Clarksburg for a time Mr. Baker removed to Cleveland, Ohio. Mr. Baker was a very able lawyer and it did not take him long to acquire a lucrative practice. In his new home, Cleveland, he became closely identified with reform movements. One of the "burning" questions in that city was a reduction of street car fares and in this Mr. Baker became a leader. He was elected city solicitor, and held that office for ten consecutive years until he was elected mayor, a place he filled for two terms.

When Woodrow Wilson became an open candidate for the presidency Mr. Baker quickly aligned himself among his followers. He was a delegate to the Democratic National Convention in 1912 and carried there his enthusiastic support of the New Jersey governor. Mr. Wilson had been his tutor at Johns Hopkins and now was his political leader.

When Mr. Wilson was making up his cabinet, in 1913, he twice offered the place of Secretary of the Interior to Mr. Baker, who declined to accept. But the new President kept the mayor of Cleveland in his mind. On the sudden resignation of Secretary Garrison the President's thought immediately turned to his Ohio friend, but delayed making the appointment for nearly a month. He several times expressed his desire to fill the vacant place with a man learned in the law, as many difficult problems were likely to come before the department. The tender was finally made to Mr. Baker and, after much hesitancy on his part, accepted.

Within a year he was confronted with the most gigantic task ever thrust upon an American Secretary of War. The United States determined to enter into the war then raging in Europe and it fell to the Department of War to mobilize an army of more than three million of men, arm and equip them and then transport them to the seat of war. After reaching that front they had to be kept supplied with everything necessary in time of war. Cantonments had to be constructed, great supplies of all kinds of war munitions purchased and made available, all costing billions of dollars to the people. This was the task that fell on the shoulders of Secretary Baker.

He left the government service at the close of President Wilson's term of office and returned to Cleveland, again entering upon the active practice of his profession.

JOHN WINGATE WEEKS

JOHN WINGATE WEEKS—Secretary of War March 5, 1921. Born at Lancaster, New Hampshire, April 11, 1860. Son of William D. and Mary Helen (Fowler) Weeks. Educated at United States Naval Academy. Married, October 7, 1885, Martha A. Sinclair.

1881—Ensign in the United States Navy.
1899—Alderman of Newton, Massachusetts.
19 —Mayor of Newton.
1905—Member national House of Representatives.
1913—Member United States Senate.
1921—Secretary of War.

Educated in public schools of Lancaster, New Hampshire, at the age of seventeen taught the district school; received appointment to United States Naval Academy; graduated in 1881. Served in the navy until 1883. After leaving the navy he received a position as land commissioner of the Florida Southern Railroad, which he held until about 1889. From Florida he went to Boston, where he and Henry Hornblower became partners and organized the firm of Hornblower and Weeks, bankers and brokers, in Boston. Served in the Massachusetts naval brigade for ten years; served in the volunteer navy during the Spanish-American War. Was elected as alderman of the city of Newton, Massachusetts, in 1899, and for three successive terms. Was mayor of Newton for two terms. Was elected to the fifty-ninth, sixtieth, sixty-first, sixty-second and sixty-third congresses. In the House of Representatives he was a member of the Banking and Currency Committee which shaped the Aldrich-Vreeland Currency Law; was chairman of the Committee on Postoffices and Post Roads; he figured prominently in the enactment of the White Mountain-Appalachian Forestry Law, and was author of the Weeks-McLain Law, a bill to protect migratory and insectivorous birds. He was elected to the United States Senate January 14, 1913, to succeed the Honorable Winthrop Murray Crane. Upon his election to the Senate he resigned from the firm of Hornblower and Weeks.

He was a member of the Senate Military Affairs Committee and the Committee on Banking and Currency; took active part in framing Federal Reserve Law. Received one hundred and five votes for the presidential nomination in the Republican National Convention at Chicago in June, 1916, being the first navy man to receive such an honor. His support came from twenty-five states and was second only to that of the nominee. His term of service in the Senate expired March 3, 1919. Served as Republican national committeeman from Massachusetts from 1920 until the early part of 1923. Took oath of office as Secretary of War March 5, 1921, to which office he was appointed by President Harding. Was retained by President Coolidge as a member of the cabinet.

John K. Beeks

The Department of Justice

Although there has been an Attorney General from the earliest period of our constitutional government, the Department of Justice was not created until 1870. The act approved September 24, 1789, establishing a system of courts for the United States, provided "there shall also be appointed a meet person, learned in the law, to act as Attorney General." He was to prosecute and conduct all suits in the Supreme Court of the United States in which the United States should be a party or was in any way concerned. He was also to give his opinion and advice upon questions of law when required by the President or requested by the heads of any of the departments.

He was not required to reside at the seat of government, nor was he given any control or direction over the United States attorneys appointed in the various districts. Under the act of 1789 his duties were very light. In organizing a cabinet President Washington requested Edmund Randolph, whom he had appointed Attorney General, to take part in the cabinet consultations, and ever afterward the Attorney General has had a seat at the cabinet table, although he was not the head of an executive department. In 1841 an act was passed requiring the Attorney General to reside at the seat of government.

In his last annual message President Madison called the attention of Congress to the office of Attorney General and recommended he be placed on a footing with the heads of other departments. This recommendation was renewed by Presidents John Quincy Adams and James K. Polk, but Congress took no action. In 1858 the Attorney General was given an assistant and in 1861 all United States district attorneys and marshals were placed under his supervision. Second and third assistants were provided for in 1868 and 1871.

An act approved June 22, 1870, established the Department of Justice and placed the Attorney General at its head. This act also provided for the appointment of a Solicitor General, who, in case of the absence of the Attorney General, or there being a vacancy in that office, should act as Attorney General. The act transferred to the

Department of Justice the law officers that had been hitherto connected with the other departments. The supervisory powers of the Secretary of the Interior over the accounts of the district attorneys, marshals, clerks and other officers of the courts of the United States were transferred to the Department of Justice.

The Attorney General is the chief law officer of the government and represents the United States in matters involving legal questions. He exercises a general direction over the district attorneys and marshals. The routine work of the department is apportioned to the several assistant attorneys.

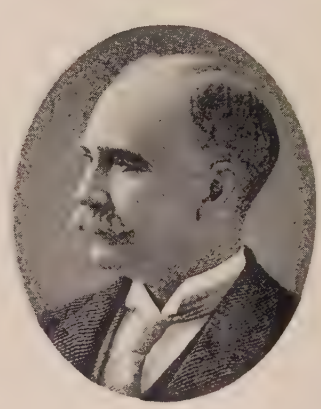
Although the Attorney General had a seat in the cabinet from the first, his salary was much below that of the other members of the cabinet. In 1789 it was fixed at fifteen hundred dollars and was not made equal to the others until 1850. It is now twelve thousand dollars.

Notwithstanding the government has existed under the Constitution for more than a century and a third still it seems the powers and authorities of the several branches, and the rights of the people have not yet been altogether defined. When John Adams was President he peremptorily dismissed from his cabinet Timothy Pickering, Secretary of State. This raised the question as to the power of the President to dismiss from office anyone who had been once confirmed by the Senate. The controversy lasted long, but the dismissal was finally acquiesced in without determining the question of power.

It was again raised under the administration of President Jackson, but Presidents have continued to exercise that power. A case is now pending in the Supreme Court in which that question is distinctly raised and the court is asked to pass upon and thus settle for all time the problem. The question as to the right of the President to grant a pardon in certain cases is also pending. The judge of the United States Court in Chicago sent a witness to jail for contempt of court. President Coolidge granted a pardon. It is claimed the President's power to grant a pardon goes only to those convicted of crime, and he cannot interfere with a court protecting itself by punishing for contempt.

Just when a seal was adopted for the Department of Justice is not known. It consisted of the United States shield with (improperly) stars in the chief. From it an eagle rising with outstretched wings, bearing in right talon an olive branch, and in the left, arrows. The motto was *"Qui pro domina justitia sequitur."* Underneath were the words "ATTORNEY GENERAL'S OFFICE." As now used seal was approved in 1872. It differs some from the original, the main change being the substitution of "DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE" in the rim instead of "ATTORNEY GENERAL'S OFFICE."

WILLIAM M. EVARTS



JUDSON HARMON

JEREMIAH S. BLACK

CHARLES DEVENS

CHARLES J. BONAPARTE

The office of Attorney General has been held at various times by men of great learning in the law. Edmund Randolph, the first to hold that office, was a really great lawyer. It is true he later, while Secretary of State, became involved in a money transaction which caused him to resign, but no stain ever rested upon him as an attorney. Among other great lawyers who have filled that office may be mentioned William Wirt; profound in law, eloquent in speech, he was in his day the most distinguished lawyer in America. There were also William Pinkney, he of the "silver tongue"; John J. Crittenden, Reverdy Johnson, Caleb Cushing, Jeremiah S. Black, William M. Evarts, Richard Olney and Philander C. Knox—all great men and great lawyers.

Roster of Attorneys General

Edmund Randolph, of Virginia.
From February 2, 1790, to January 2, 1794 (*see* Department of State).

William Bradford, of Pennsylvania.
From January 29, 1794, to August 23, 1795.

Charles Lee, of Virginia.
From December 10, 1795, to March 3, 1801.

Levi Lincoln, of Massachusetts.
From March 5, 1801, to December 31, 1804.

John Breckenridge, of Kentucky.
From August 7, 1805, to December 14, 1806.

Ceasar A. Rodney, of Pennsylvania.
From January 20, 1807, to December 5, 1811.

William Pinkney, of Maryland.
From January 6, 1812, to February 10, 1814.

Richard Rush, of Pennsylvania.
From February 11, 1814, to October 30, 1817 (*see* Department of the Treasury).

William Wirt, of Virginia.
From November 15, 1817, to March 3, 1829.

John M. Berrien, of Georgia.
From March 9, 1829, to June 22, 1831.

Roger B. Taney, of Maryland.
From July 20, 1831, to September 23, 1833.

Benjamin F. Butler, of New York.
From November 18, 1833, to August 31, 1838.

Felix Grundy, of Tennessee
From September 1, 1838, to December 14, 1839.

Henry D. Gilpin, of Pennsylvania.
From January 11, 1840, to March 3, 1841.

John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky.
From March 6, 1841, to September 11, 1841, and from August 14, 1850, to March 7, 1853.

HUGH S. LEGARRE, of South Carolina.
From September 20, 1841, to June 20, 1843.

JOHN NELSON, of Maryland.
From July 1, 1843, to March 4, 1845.

JOHN Y. MASON, of Virginia.
From March 11, 1845, to September 9, 1846 (*see* Department of the Navy).

NATHAN CLIFFORD, of Maine.
From October 18, 1846, to March 18, 1848.

ISAAC TOUCEY, of Connecticut.
From June 29, 1848, to March 7, 1849 (*see* Department of the Navy).

REVERDY JOHNSON, of Maryland.
From March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850.

CALEB CUSHING, of Masachusetts.
From March 8, 1853, to March 10, 1857.

JEREMIAH S. BLACK, of Pennsylvania.
From March 11, 1857, to December 19, 1860.

EDWIN M. STANTON, of Pennsylvania.
From December 22, 1860, to March 5, 1861 (*see* Department of War).

EDWARD BATES, of Missouri.
From March 6, 1861, to November 30, 1864.

JAMES SPEED, of Kentucky.
From December 5, 1864, to July 16, 1866.

HENRY STANBERY, of Ohio.
From July 24, 1866, to March 12, 1868.

WILLIAM M. EVARTS, of New York.
From July 20, 1868, to March 4, 1869 (*see* Department of State).

EBENEZER R. HOAR, of Massachusetts.
From March 11, 1869, to July 7, 1870.

AMOS T. AKERMAN, of Georgia.
From July 8, 1870, to January 9, 1872.

GEORGE H. WILLIAMS, of Oregon.
From January 10, 1872, to May 15, 1875.

EDWARDS PIERREPONT, of New York.
From May 15, 1875, to May 31, 1876.

ALPHONSO TAFT, of Ohio.
From June 1, 1876, to March 11, 1877 (*see* Department of War).

CHARLES DEVENS, of Massachusetts.
From March 12, 1877, to March 7, 1881.

WAYNE MCVEAGH, of Pennsylvania.
From March 7, 1881, to November 14, 1881.

BENJAMIN H. BREWSTER, of Pennsylvania.
From January 3, 1882, to March 8, 1885.

AUGUSTUS H. GARLAND, of Arkansas.
From March 9, 1885, to March 5, 1889.

WILLIAM H. H. MILLER, of Indiana.
From March 6, 1889, to March 6, 1893.

RICHARD OLNEY, of Massachusetts.
From March 7, 1893, to June 9, 1895 (*see* Department of State).

JUDSON HARMON, of Ohio.
From June 11, 1895, to March 6, 1897.

JOSEPH MCKENNA, of California.
From March 7, 1897, to January 25, 1898.

JOHN W. GRIGGS, of New Jersey.
From February 1, 1898, to April 1, 1901.

PHILANDER C. KNOX, of Pennsylvania.
From April 10, 1901, to July 1, 1904 (*see* Department of State).

WILLIAM H. MOODY, of Massachusetts.
From July 1, 1904, to December 11, 1906 (*see* Department of the Navy).

CHARLES J. BONAPARTE, of Maryland.
From December 12, 1906, to March 5, 1909.

GEORGE W. WICKERSHAM, of New York.
From March 5, 1909, to March 4, 1913.

JOHN CLARK MCREYNOLDS, of Tennessee.
From March 5, 1913, to August 12, 1914.

THOMAS WATT GREGORY, of Texas.
From August 29, 1914, to March 4, 1919.

ALEXANDER MITCHELL PALMER, of Pennsylvania.
From March 5, 1919, to March 4, 1921.

HARRY M. DAUGHERTY, of Ohio.
From March 5, 1921, to April 5, 1924.

HARLAN FISKE STONE, of Massachusetts.
From April 7, 1924, to February 5, 1925.

JOHN GARIBALDI SARGENT, of Vermont.
From March 19, 1925.

William Bradford, John Breckenridge and Hugh Legarre died while occupying the office.

Theophilus Parsons, of Massachusetts, was nominated by President John Adams in February, 1801; the nomination was confirmed but the office declined.

Robert Smith, of Maryland, was nominated and confirmed in 1805. He did not take the office, but remained at the head of the Navy Department.

Peter V. Daniel, of Virginia, was appointed in 1833 by President Jackson, but appointment was declined.

Joseph Holt, of Kentucky, was appointed and commissioned by President Lincoln in 1864; declined.

Henry Stanbery served from July 24, 1866, to March 12, 1868. Resigned to act as counsel for President Johnson in the impeachment proceedings. He was again nominated in 1868, but the nomination was rejected.

Benjamin H. Bristow, of Kentucky, was nominated by President Grant in 1879, but the nomination was withdrawn.

Richard Olney was transferred to the Department of State on the death of Secretary Gresham.

Joseph McKenna was appointed Associate Justice of the Supreme Court in 1899.

Philander C. Knox served as Secretary of State under President Taft.

William H. Moody served as Secretary of the Navy under President Roosevelt.

James Clark McReynolds was appointed Associate Justice of the Supreme Court in 1914.

Harry M. Daugherty resigned on request of President Coolidge. The request was made on account of charges of corruption in the department.

Biographies of Attorneys General

William Bradford

William Bradford—Attorney General from January 29, 1794, to August 23, 1795. Born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, September 14, 1755. Son of Colonel William Bradford. Educated at Princeton College. Married, in 1784, Miss Boudinot. Died August 23, 1795.

1780—Attorney General of Pennsylvania.
1791—Judge of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania.
1794—Attorney General of the United States.

Mr. Bradford graduated from Princeton College in 1772 with high honors and studied law, but was not admitted to the bar until 1779, having entered the Continental Army, serving with great gallantry until his health failed. He reached the grade of lieutenant colonel and for a time served as deputy quartermaster general.

He was a man of eminent parts, and in 1794, when Edmund Randolph was transferred to the State Department, President Washington selected Mr. Bradford as his successor in the office of Attorney General. He held the office until his death in August, 1795.

Charles Lee

Charles Lee—Attorney General from December 10, 1795, to March 3, 1801. Born in Farquier county, Virginia, July, 1758. Son of Henry and Mary (Grymes) Lee.

1795—Attorney General of the United States.

But little can be learned of the early life of Charles Lee, who was appointed Attorney General by President Washington on the death of William Bradford. He was a member of the famous Lee family of Virginia. He studied law and served several terms in the Virginia Legislature. Shortly before the expiration of his term President John Adams appointed Mr. Lee judge of the Fourth Circuit, but the appointment was declined.

Levi Lincoln

Levi Lincoln—Attorney General from March 5, 1801, to December 31, 1804. Born at Hingham, Massachusetts, May 15, 1749. Son of Enoch and Rachel (Fearing) Lincoln. Educated at Harvard College. Married Martha Waldo. Died at Worcester, Massachusetts, April 14, 1820.

1781—Member Massachusetts Constitutional Convention.
1796—Member General Court of Massachusetts.
1797—Member Massachusetts State Senate.
1800—Member national House of Representatives.

1801—Attorney General of the United States.
1806—Member Massachusetts Executive Council.
1807—Lieutenant Governor of Massachusetts.
1810—Member Massachusetts Executive Council.

Levi Lincoln was a direct descendant of Samuel Lincoln, who came to America in 1637 from Hingham, England. The father of Levi was a farmer and gave his son a liberal education. Levi was graduated from Harvard in 1772. His first intention was to study theology and devote himself to the ministry, but changed his mind on hearing John Adams argue a case in court. He then devoted himself to the study of the law, and on being admitted to the bar began the practice at Worcester, Massachusetts, which ever after was his home.

He took an active interest in political affairs of the state and was largely instrumental in securing the abolition of slavery in Massachusetts. He had but fairly started in his professional career when the War for Independence broke out, and he enrolled himself in a militia company and with the company took an active part in the siege of Boston. Shortly after the evacuation of Boston by the British Mr. Lincoln was chosen a member of the famous Committee on Correspondence.

Devoting himself to his profession he rapidly achieved distinction as a successful attorney. In 1781 he was a delegate to the convention called to frame a constitution for the state of Massachusetts and took a very prominent part in the discussions of that body. The same year he was elected a delegate to the Continental Congress, but declined to serve. In 1801 he was elected to Congress to fill a vacancy, but served only a few weeks, taking his seat on February 6 and resigning it on March 8 to accept the position of Attorney General in the administration of President Jefferson.

Mr. Lincoln was regarded as one of the ablest lawyers of his time, and filled the office of Attorney General with great success, but in 1804 he decided to return to the active practice of his profession and tendered his resignation to the President. In 1811 President Madison tendered him an appointment as Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, but he was suffering from a severe affliction of the eyes which threatened to result in total blindness and the offer was declined. The withdrawal of Mr. Lincoln from the cabinet was occasioned by the friction resulting from the purchase of Louisiana. President Jefferson did not believe he had the power to make the purchase without an amendment to the Constitution. As Attorney General Mr. Lincoln proposed the treaty be so drawn as to make it appear not as adding new territory to the United States but simply making an alteration in existing boundaries, thus avoiding the constitutional objection in an indirect manner. This was not accepted and some harsh criticisms by Gallatin finally led to the retirement of Attorney General Lincoln.

JOHN BRECKENRIDGE

JOHN BRECKENRIDGE—Attorney General from August 7, 1805, to December 14, 1806. Born in Augusta county, Virginia, December 2, 1760. Son of Robert Breckenridge. Educated at William and Mary College. Married Mary Cabell. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, December 14, 1806.

1780—Member Virginia Legislature.
1798—Member Kentucky Legislature.
1801—United States Senator.
1805—Attorney General of the United States.

The Breckenridge family has been a famous one in the American political history. Robert, the Attorney General of the United States during a part of the administration of President Jefferson, was one of the famous orators of his time. At the age of nineteen, while a student at William and Mary College, he was elected a member of the Virginia Legislature, but was refused a seat by that body because of his being under age. He was elected a second time and again refused his seat. His constituents returned him for the third time, when the legislature gave way and admitted him.

Young Breckenridge studied law after leaving college and was admitted to the bar in 1785, beginning the practice of his profession at Charlottesville. He was elected to the third Congress but did not claim his seat owing to his having removed to Kentucky. In Kentucky he chose Lexington as his home, and soon had an extensive practice, taking rank as one of the leading lawyers of the state. He was made a member of the Kentucky Legislature and introduced the famous resolutions of 1798, declaring the right of a state to nullify a law of Congress. He was the putative father of the resolutions, but historians agree they were drawn by Mr. Jefferson and by him sent to Mr. Breckenridge.

In 1794 he had been a candidate for the United States Senate, but was unsuccessful. In 1801, however, he was elected to that body, and for four years was the mouthpiece of the President in the Senate, introducing almost every distinctively administrative measure. When the purchase of Louisiana was under discussion by the President and his advisers, Mr. Jefferson took the ground that he had no power to purchase unless an amendment to the Constitution were adopted and requested Senator Breckenridge to offer such an amendment in the Senate. This Mr. Breckenridge refused to do, holding that no such amendment was necessary; that the President had ample powers under the treaty-making clause of the Constitution, thus placing himself squarely on the Hamilton theory of implied powers.

From December 31, 1804, to August 7, 1805, the country had no Attorney General. Robert Smith, Secretary of the Navy, was nominated and confirmed as Attorney General on the resignation of Levi

Lincoln, but did not take the office, remaining at the head of the Navy Department, owing to the refusal of Mr. Crowninshield, who had been appointed and commissioned as Secretary of the Navy, to take the office. Thus it was not until in August, 1805, that an Attorney General was appointed. Mr. Breckenridge held the office until his death.

CEASAR AUGUSTUS RODNEY

CEASAR A. RODNEY—Attorney General from January 20, 1807, to December 5, 1811. Born at Dover, Delaware, January 4, 1772. Son of Colonel Thomas and Elizabeth (Fisher) Rodney. Educated at the University of Pennsylvania. Married, in 1791, Miss Susan Hunn. Died in Buenos Aires, South America, June 10, 1824.

1803—Member national House of Representatives.
1807—Attorney General of the United States.
1815—Member Delaware Senate.
1817—Commissioner to the South American Republics.
1821—Member national House of Representatives.
1822—United States Senator.
1823—Minister to Argentina.

Ceasar Augustus Rodney came from a distinguished revolutionary family of Delaware. Graduating from the University of Pennsylvania in 1789 he began the study of law. When ready for admission to the bar he chose Wilmington, Delaware, as his future home. He took an active interest in politics and as an anti-Federalist was elected to Congress, serving one term. He was prominent in the impeachment proceedings against United States Judge Samuel Chase.

On the death of Attorney General Breckenridge President Jefferson appointed Mr. Rodney to the vacancy, and he was retained in that position by President Madison until December, 1811, when he resigned in displeasure because the President nominated a candidate for a vacant place on the Supreme Bench without consulting him.

When war was declared against Great Britain in 1812 Mr. Rodney raised a company of artillery and served with the army on the Canadian border. In 1817, when the newly formed republics of South America were asking recognition by the United States, President Monroe appointed a commission to visit those countries and investigate as to the expediency of granting the recognition asked for. Mr. Rodney was a member of the commission, and while acting in that capacity won the good-will of the South Americans.

Returning to the United States Mr. Rodney was again elected a member of the House of Representatives, serving until he was elected to the Senate in 1822. The next year he was appointed and accepted minister to Argentina, being the first minister of the United States to that country. He died at Buenos Aires while holding that office.

WILLIAM PINKNEY

WILLIAM PINKNEY—Attorney General from January 6, 1812, to February 10, 1814. Born at Annapolis, Maryland, March 17, 1764. Educated at Havre de Grace, Maryland. Married Miss Anna Maria Rogers. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, February 25, 1822.

1788—Delegate to Maryland Convention to ratify the Constitution.
1788—Member Maryland Legislature.
1792—Member Maryland Executive Council.
1795—Member Maryland Legislature.
1796—Commissioner to London on Jay Treaty.
1805—Attorney General of Maryland.
1806—Minister to Great Britain.
1811—Member Maryland Legislature.
1812—Attorney General of the United States.
1816—Member national House of Representatives.
1816—Minister to Russia.
1820—United States Senator.

One of America's greatest lawyers and most eloquent orators was William Pinkney, of Maryland. His legal ability and his eloquence and power in the presentation of a case to a court or jury are still themes of admiration among lawyers. He was born in Annapolis, Maryland, just as the colonies were beginning to seriously discuss the oppressive measures of the English Parliament. His father was a native of England and adhered to the cause of the mother country, but William, while still but a mere boy, avowed his attachment to the doctrines of liberty.

He first thought of adopting medicine as his profession, but after studying that science for a short time he abandoned it for the law. He studied law under Justice Chase, then one of the most eminent lawyers of Maryland. He was admitted to the bar in 1786 after three years of close application to his studies. His style of speaking at that time was marked by a natural eloquence and an easy flow of language. On being admitted to the bar he removed to Harford county, and there rapidly rose in the respect and confidence of the people, and of the other members of the bar. His first public service was as a delegate to the convention called in Maryland in 1788 to take into consideration the ratification of the new Constitution of the Union, and in the same year he was elected a member of the Maryland Legislature and continued to represent Harford county in that body until 1792. In 1790 his election was contested on the ground that he did not reside in the county for which he had been elected, he having removed to Annapolis. The contest was decided in his favor but he declined to serve. In the convention on the Constitution he was its ardent friend and advocate and did much to win its ratification by Maryland.

Having removed from Harford county to Annapolis he continued to grow in reputation both as a lawyer and as an orator, and his practice

was very large. In the midst of his success at the bar President Washington chose him as one of the commissioners provided for by the Jay Treaty and in July, 1796, he went to London. His written opinions while acting as one of the commissioners are regarded as models of judicial eloquence and of powerful and comprehensive reasoning. While in London he also acted as the agent of Maryland in connection with the claim of the state to recover a large amount of stock in the Bank of England owned by the state before the Revolutionary War. He returned from England in 1804 with an increased reputation as a lawyer and once more devoted himself to his profession. Shortly after his return to America he removed from Annapolis to Baltimore.

In 1805 he was appointed Attorney General for Maryland, a place he accepted under conditions that the emoluments were to go to another person. He did not serve long in this position, for in 1806 he was called upon by President Jefferson to act as special envoy to Great Britain to secure a treaty that would put an end to the depredations on our commerce by Great Britain. In this mission he acted in concert with James Monroe. He remained in London nearly five years amid such hostility as no other American envoy has ever experienced. Amid it all he conducted himself with dignity and firmness, and with admirable discretion. During nearly the whole of the five years he was the sole representative of the United States in London, for Mr. Monroe returned to the United States in 1807. Having wholly failed in his diplomatic mission, and worn out by the hostilities he continually encountered, Mr. Pinkney returned home in 1811.

In 1811 he was appointed, by President Madison, Attorney General of the United States. He was nominated for this position on December 10 of that year and was confirmed and commissioned the next day, but did not enter upon the office until January 6, 1812. He held this position until February 10, 1814, when he resigned, owing to the passage by Congress of an act requiring the Attorney General to reside at the seat of government. At that time the salary of the Attorney General was but three thousand dollars and no provision was made for either office room or for clerks. Mr. Pinkney did not consider the salary adequate, and as it fell far short of the emolument of his general practice he preferred to return to private life.

As Attorney General he drafted the declaration of war against Great Britain. It is remarkably short and comprehensive. It is but a single paragraph of one sentence, containing one hundred and nineteen words. In the political controversies which grew out of the declaration of war Attorney General Pinkney took an active and decided part, sustaining the President. He issued a stirring appeal to the citizens of Maryland urging them to rally to the defense of the government. A volunteer corps was raised in Baltimore for local defense and Mr. Pinkney was placed in command. When the invasion of Maryland by the British occurred in 1814 Mr. Pinkney marched with his corps to

intercept the advancing enemy, and took part in the battle of Bladensburg, behaving with great gallantry. He was severely wounded in the battle.

In 1816 he was a member of Congress for three months, resigning to go as United States minister to Russia. In the same mission he was to visit Naples to demand indemnity for property taken from Americans while Murat was king of Naples. He accomplished little in either Russia or Naples.

In 1820 he was made a member of the United States Senate. It was at the time when the admission of Missouri into the Union was the exciting topic not only in Congress but throughout the country. On February 15, only a few weeks after taking his seat, he delivered an elaborate speech against the proposed clause restricting slavery in the act of admission. He remained a member of the Senate until his death, which occurred in Washington.

During his life Mr. Pinkney was regarded as the first of American lawyers, even outranking Daniel Webster. He was also held to be the first of American orators. Unfortunately but few of his speeches have been preserved in their entirety.

WILLIAM WIRT

WILLIAM WIRT—Attorney General from November 15, 1817, to March 3, 1829. Born at Bladensburg, Maryland, November 5, 1772. Son of Jacob and Henrietta Wirt. Educated at Georgetown, District of Columbia, and at a classical school in Charles county, Maryland. Married, at Pen Park, Virginia, May 25, 1795, Mildred Gilmer; at Richmond, Virginia, September 7, 1802, Miss Elizabeth Gamble. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, February 18, 1834.

1799—Clerk of Virginia House of Representatives.
1802—Chancellor of Virginia.
1808—Member Virginia House of Delegates.
1816—United States Attorney for Virginia.
1817—Attorney General of the United States.

There is a glamour about the name of William Wirt that has not been dissipated by the more than fourscore years that have passed since his death. For twelve years he was Attorney General of the United States, serving continuously from the first year of the first administration of President Monroe to the closing day of the administration of President John Quincy Adams. Although regarded as a member of the cabinet he participated little in the affairs of the government beyond the professional duties of his office.

His parents were of Swiss and German lineage, his father having been born in Switzerland and his mother in Germany. His father settled in this country a few years prior to the Revolutionary War, making his home at Bladensburg, Maryland, where he conducted a small tavern. It is probable the future Attorney General and orator was

born in the little tavern, but there remains some uncertainty as to his actual birthplace, some chroniclers claiming it some two miles distant from the village. William was the youngest of six children.

Both of his parents died while he was but a child. At the age of seven years he was sent to a classical school at Georgetown, District of Columbia, but then a part of Maryland. When he was seventeen years of age he became a tutor in the family of Benjamin Edwards, one of the prominent citizens of Maryland.

Having determined upon the law as his profession he began the study of that science in 1790 at Montgomery Courthouse. A year later he removed to Virginia. The law of that state required a residence of one year before admission to the bar, but after a study there of about five months he was able to secure a license to practice and he entered upon the active practice. The court in which he was admitted to the bar was that of Culpeper county, and he accordingly took up his residence in the courthouse village of that county. His success was almost immediate. He had the faculty of making friends, and his friends stood by him, aiding him in securing clients.

The death of his wife in 1795 caused him to change his residence and he removed to Richmond. The legislature was in session at the time. Some of his friends were members of that body and they induced him to accept the position of clerk. At that time it was a rather important office with a fair salary. It afforded him an opportunity to extend his acquaintance with the public men of the state, among them being Thomas Jefferson and James Madison. He held the position of clerk of the House of Delegates during three sessions of the legislature. It was while he was holding this position he won great fame by his skillful defense of Callender, who had been indicted for publishing a libel on President John Adams. Callender seems to have been a libeller by profession, publishing, at various times, the most scurrilous attacks on Washington, Adams and Jefferson. In the course of the trial Mr. Wirt advanced the theory that the jury were the exclusive judges of the law and the facts and were not bound to take the law from the trial judge, and that the law under which the indictment had been returned was unconstitutional and it was in the province of the jury so to declare.

In the session of the legislature which terminated in the winter of 1802 Mr. Wirt was elected one of the three chancellors of the state. He had no intimation that he was to be elected to such a position. One day he was requested to withdraw from the House for a short time in order that nominations for the three chancellorships might be made and acted upon. He was elected by the unanimous vote of the assembly. He was at that time but twenty-nine years of age. The district assigned to him included the Eastern Shore of Virginia and the tidewater counties below Richmond, necessitating his residence at Williamsburg. In May, 1803, he resigned the chancellorship and removed to Norfolk.

There he was at once inducted into a large and lucrative practice, his reputation as an orator and as a sound lawyer being readily recognized. It was soon after this removal to Norfolk that he began to turn his attention to literary matters, and he issued the series of letters (afterward published in book form), under the title "The British Spy." The letters were written in a polished and elegant style, attracting great attention at the time. He continued to reside at Norfolk until July, 1806. His renown brought him into almost every criminal trial of note, and while his success at Norfolk had been great, he longed to return to Richmond and in 1806 once more took up his residence there.

It was in 1807 his fame spread far beyond the boundaries of Virginia. It was in that year he appeared as one of the attorneys for the government in the trial of Aaron Burr. His speech on that occasion remains as one of the soundest expositions of the law delivered by any of the counsel for the government, and a part of it, his description of Blennerhasset, is found in nearly all the school readers.

On March 13, 1816, Mr. Wirt was surprised by receiving a letter from President Madison tendering him the appointment of United States district attorney for Virginia. After much hesitation he finally accepted the place. Soon after his inauguration as President Mr. Monroe began looking around for an Attorney General. Richard Rush, who had been appointed by President Madison, was still holding the position, but was anxious to exchange it for the mission to England. Mr. Wirt happened to be in Washington on legal business and President Monroe tendered him the place. He accepted and was commissioned on November 13, 1817, during a recess of the Senate. Mr. Wirt was not anxious for a public life; his taste ran to literary work and he much preferred to practice his profession and give his leisure hours to literature.

President Monroe had been one of his early friends and patrons at a period when he needed friends and Mr. Wirt, with but little urging, accepted the position he continued to hold for nearly twelve years. Not long before the appointment of Mr. Wirt Congress had passed an act requiring the Attorney General to reside at the seat of government and he at once moved his family to Washington. The duties of his office were not so onerous as to forbid his practicing in the courts, and we find him connected with many of the more important cases coming before the Supreme Court of the United States, among them being the great case of the Dartmouth College and that of McCulloch against the State of Maryland, cases in which great constitutional questions were involved.

The tenure of office of cabinet ministers had been provocative of some discussion from the days of President John Adams, some lawyers and statesmen holding that the President did not have the power to remove a member of the cabinet without the consent of the Senate. In 1828 Mr. Monroe wrote a letter to Attorney General Wirt, in which he fully discussed this question of tenure. Mr. Monroe took the posi-

tion that members of the cabinet held their offices as servants of the public and not of the President; that their appointment did not cease with the term of the President, yet, being counsellors of the President, he (Mr. Monroe) could not see how they could remain in office without the President's sanction. It has been said that it was this letter of Mr. Monroe that caused General Jackson, when he became President, to insert in the commissions of those he appointed to cabinet positions, a clause that they were to hold their offices during the pleasure of the President.

After retiring from the office of Attorney General Mr. Wirt took up his residence in Baltimore and again devoted himself entirely to the practice of his profession. He appeared before the Senate as the attorney for Judge Peck, of Missouri, when he was impeached by the House of Representatives. He secured the acquittal of the judge.

In 1832 he was made the candidate of the Anti-Mason party for President and received the electoral vote of Vermont.

JOHN MACPHERSON BERRIEN

JOHN M. BERRIEN—Attorney General from March 9, 1829, to June 22, 1831. Born near Princeton, New Jersey, August 23, 1781. Son of Major John and —— (MacPherson) Berrien. Educated at Princeton College. Died at Savannah, Georgia, January 1, 1856.

1810—Judge of Eastern Circuit Court of Georgia.
1821—Member Georgia Senate.
1822—Member Georgia Senate.
1825—United States Senator.
1829—Attorney General of the United States.
1841—United States Senator.
1845—Judge of the Supreme Court of Georgia.
1847—United States Senator.

John M. Berrien came from revolutionary stock, his father serving during the greater part of the war in the Colonial Army, reaching the rank of major. Graduating from Princeton College in 1796, John MacPherson studied law and removed to Georgia, where he was admitted to the bar before he was legally of age. He advanced rapidly in his profession and in 1809 was elected solicitor of the court for the Eastern Circuit, a position of much dignity and importance at that time. A year later he was elected judge of the same court. He was then but twenty-nine years of age.

He did not take an active part in politics, but was an earnest advocate of the war with Great Britain. He entered the volunteer service and was made captain of a company. At the close of the war he returned to the practice of his profession. In 1882 he was elected a member of the Georgia Senate, and on account of his ability as a lawyer and the high standing he held in the community, he became a leading figure in the legislature.

In 1825 he was elected as a Republican to the United States Senate and as a senator heartily supported the administration of President Monroe. He was an adherent of Mr. Crawford, Secretary of the Treasury, and was a member of the caucus that nominated Mr. Crawford for the presidency in 1824. Later Mr. Berrien became a follower of Mr. Calhoun, and as a friend of Mr. Calhoun President Jackson selected him for Attorney General.

At first the Attorney General was in great favor with President Jackson, but he became involved in the troubles over the wife of Major Eaton, Secretary of War, and when the President became convinced the trouble was fomented by Vice President Calhoun, he asked for the resignation of Mr. Berrien, together with that of Secretary of the Treasury Ingham and Secretary of the Navy Branch, all being supporters of Mr. Calhoun. After retiring from the cabinet Mr. Berrien engaged in a controversy with the President over what took place at a meeting of the cabinet in regard to the exclusion of Mrs. Eaton from the social circles of Washington.

During the second administration of President Jackson Mr. Berrien took little active part in politics and finally united with the Whigs. In 1841 he was sent to the United States Senate as a Whig, serving until May, 1845, when he resigned to accept a judicial position. He was reelected the same year to fill the vacancy caused by his own resignation. In May, 1852, he again resigned, retiring to private life.

ROGER BROOKE TANEY

ROGER BROOKE TANEY—Attorney General from July 20, 1831, to September 23, 1833; Secretary of the Treasury from September 24, 1833, to June 25, 1834. Born in Calvert county, Maryland, March 17, 1777. Son of Michael and Monica (Brooke) Taney. Educated at Dickinson College. Married, January 6, 1806, Miss Anna Phoebe Key. Died in Baltimore, Maryland, October 12, 1864.

1799—Member Maryland Legislature.
1816—Member Maryland Senate.
1827—Attorney General of Maryland.
1831—Attorney General of the United States.
1833—Secretary of the Treasury.
1836—Chief Justice of the United States.

For several generations the ancestors of Roger Brooke Taney owned and lived on the estate where he was born, in Calvert county, Maryland. In accordance with the custom among the wealthy planters of those days, the father of the future Chief Justice of the United States was sent to France for his education. The estate of the father was a large landed one, finding employment for a large number of slaves.

Being prepared for college under competent tutors, Roger was sent to Dickinson College, at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, where he was gradu-

ated in 1795. On leaving the college Mr. Taney devoted himself to the study of the profession in which he afterward became so eminent. Being admitted to the bar he began the practice of his profession at Annapolis, but in 1801 removed to Frederick and in 1823 to Baltimore. He rose gradually in his profession until he reached a position among the ablest attorneys of Maryland. His first great success came to him in 1811 when he successfully defended General James Wilkinson against many grave charges of wrongdoing while in command of the army.

Mr. Taney early manifested great interest in political matters, being an ardent Federalist. Notwithstanding his Federalist leanings he energetically supported the administration of President Madison during the war with Great Britain. He had just reached his majority when he was elected a member of the Maryland House of Delegates in 1799, serving one term. For five years, from 1816 to 1821, he was a member of the Maryland Senate. Having renounced his Federalism and joined the Republicans, he was one of the leaders of the Jeffersonian ideas of government. In 1827 he was made attorney general of Maryland and was holding that office when President Jackson called him into his cabinet in 1831.

Almost from the time of his entering the cabinet he wielded great influence with the President. He was a resolute states rights Democrat and was bitterly opposed to the United States Bank. He was a member of what was known as the "Kitchen Cabinet." President Jackson did not have a cabinet in the sense that had governed his predecessors. He looked upon the cabinet as merely heads of departments, hence never held cabinet meetings to determine a line of policy, and held only two or three during his eight years as President even to discuss matters of policy. While Mr. Van Buren was Secretary of State he was the chief confidential adviser of the President on all matters of political policy, and Mr. Taney became his successor in that respect.

Mr. Taney wrote many of the more important of the President's state papers, including his farewell address. When the question of the removal of the government deposits from the United States Bank was under consideration Attorney General Taney was steadfastly in favor of the removal. It was to him President Jackson submitted for revision the paper read to the cabinet justifying his action in ordering the removal of the deposits. When Secretary Duane was dismissed from the Treasury Department, because of his refusal to issue the order for the removal of the deposits, Mr. Taney was appointed Secretary of the Treasury. He assumed the duties of that office on September 24, 1833, and on the twenty-sixth issued the order of removal. In his report to Congress at the opening of the following session he ignored the contention of the President that the deposits were not safe in the United States Bank and justified their removal on the ground of expediency alone. His nomination as Secretary of the Treasury was not sent to

the Senate until June 23, 1834. It was rejected by the Senate on the following day and Mr. Taney retired from office.

In 1836 President Jackson nominated him to a vacancy as Associate Justice of the Supreme Court, caused by the death of Justice Duvall, but the Senate refused to consent to the appointment. A few months later Chief Justice Marshall died and on December 28, 1836, the President nominated Mr. Taney to the vacancy. It was not until the following March 15 a confirmation could be secured in the Senate. The opposition was wholly based on his actions while Secretary of the Treasury and not to any lack of legal learning.

During his long service as Chief Justice, which lasted until his death in 1864, many important questions were decided by the court, some of them involving a construction of the Constitution. The most politically famous was the case of the negro Dred Scott. During the Civil War Chief Justice Taney rendered a decision denying the right of the President to suspend the writ of *habeas corpus*.

BENJAMIN F. BUTLER

BENJAMIN F. BUTLER—Attorney General from November 18, 1833, to August 31, 1838; Secretary of War from March 3, 1837, to March 13, 1837. Born at Kinderhook, New York, December 17, 1795. Educated at Hudson Academy. Married Miss Allen. Died in Paris, France, November 8, 1858.

1821—District Attorney of Albany county, New York.
1826—Member New York Legislature.
1833—Attorney General of the United States.
1836—Secretary of War.
1838—United States Attorney, Southern New York District.

Benjamin F. Butler has the unique distinction of holding at the same time two cabinet positions under appointment by the President and confirmation by the Senate. He was Attorney General in the cabinet of President Jackson when General Cass resigned as Secretary of War. Attorney General Butler was first made Secretary of War *ad interim*, serving in that capacity from October 26, 1836, to March 3, 1837. On March 3, 1837, the last day of the term of President Jackson, Mr. Butler was nominated, confirmed and commissioned Secretary of War. The commission issued to him was pecular in its wording. It read: "To be Secretary of War during the pleasure of the President, until a successor, duly appointed, shall accept such office and enter upon the duties thereof." Under that commission he served as Secretary of War until March 13, when Joel R. Poinsett assumed the duties, Mr. Butler continuing to hold the office of Attorney General during the same period.

Mr. Butler is said to have been a direct descendant, on his mother's side, of Oliver Cromwell. After leaving the academy, where he received

his education, Mr. Butler began the study of law in the office of Martin Van Buren, and later became the business partner of his preceptor. He was admitted to the bar in 1817, and went with Mr. Van Buren to Albany. He followed the political fortunes of Mr. Van Buren, and through the influence of that astute politician rapidly rose to be one of the leaders of the Democratic party in New York. In 1833, only a short time before he became a member of the President's cabinet, he was offered a seat in the United States Senate, but declined it.

When President Jackson was reorganizing his cabinet for the second time Mr. Butler was given the attorney generalship vacated by Roger B. Taney, who had been transferred to the Treasury Department. As Attorney General he approved the removal of the deposits from the United States Bank, as he did all the other official acts of the President. He was not happy in the cabinet and in 1838 persuaded President Van Buren to accept his resignation. Leaving the cabinet he removed from Albany to New York city, and very soon thereafter was given the appointment as United States attorney.

In 1845 he declined the appointment as Secretary of War tendered him by President Polk. Mr. Butler separated himself from his old political associations on the question of slavery and became a Republican, supporting and voting for John C. Fremont in 1856.

FELIX GRUNDY

FELIX GRUNDY—Attorney General from September 1, 1838, to December 14, 1839. Born in Berkley county, Virginia, September 11, 1777. Educated in private schools. Died at Nashville, Tennessee, December 12, 1840.

1799—Member Kentucky Constitutional Convention.
1800—Member Kentucky Legislature.
1805—Associate Justice of Kentucky Court of Appeals.
1811—Member national House of Representatives.
1815—Member Tennessee Legislature.
1829—United States Senator.
1838—Attorney General of the United States.

Felix Grundy, who served for little more than one year as Attorney General in the cabinet of President Van Buren, was born in Berkley county, Virginia. When he was but three years old his father removed with his family to Kentucky. Felix received a fair education at the hands of private teachers and studied law, being admitted to the bar in 1797. Two years later he was a member of the convention called to revise the Kentucky constitution.

In 1800 he was elected to the Kentucky Legislature and served until 1806 when he resigned on receiving the appointment of associate justice of the Kentucky Supreme Court of Appeals. A few months later he became chief justice of the court. He served, however, but a few

months on the bench. While chief justice he was called to Tennessee on private business, and being induced to take up his residence in Nashville he resigned from the Kentucky bench.

He rapidly rose to the head of the Tennessee bar and in 1811 was elected to Congress. There he was one of that body of young members —Calhoun, Clay and Langdon Cheeves—who by their energy forced Congress to declare war against Great Britain. He was re-elected to the thirteenth Congress, but resigned his seat in 1814. When General Jackson became President in 1829 he appointed Senator John H. Eaton Secretary of War and Mr. Grundy was elected to the vacancy in the Senate. Mr. Grundy had originally been a warm follower of Mr. Clay, but when General Jackson became a candidate for the presidency he gave his support to the idol of Tennessee.

When President Jackson reorganized his cabinet in 1831 it was expected Mr. Grundy would resign his seat in the Senate in order to give the place to Secretary of War Eaton, but this he declined to do. This action estranged him from the President. On September 1, 1838, he took his seat in the cabinet of President Van Buren as Attorney General, a position he held until December 14, 1839, when he resigned. In 1840 the Tennessee Legislature again elected him to the United States Senate, but he never took his seat, dying at Nashville, Tennessee, December 12, 1840.

HENRY DILWOOD GILPIN

HENRY D. GILPIN—Attorney General from January 11, 1840, to March 3, 1841. Born in Lancaster, England, April 14, 1801. Son of Joshua and Mary (Dilwood) Gilpin. Educated at the University of Pennsylvania. Married, in 1835, Miss Eliza Johnson. Died in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, January 9, 1860.

1832—United States Attorney for Pennsylvania.
1837—Solicitor of the Treasury.
1840—Attorney General of the United States.

Mr. Gilpin was of Quaker parentage and was born in England while his parents were on a visit to that country. Shortly after his birth his father returned to the United States, but in 1811 went once more to England. In 1816 he finally settled in Philadelphia. Henry graduated, in 1819, from the University of Pennnsylvania as valedictorian of his class. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1822, soon displaying great ability as a lawyer. As United States Attorney he assisted President Jackson in his fight against the United States Bank. In 1837 he was appointed by President Van Buren solicitor of the Treasury Department and in 1840 was made Attorney General.

On leaving the cabinet he devoted himself to the practice of his profession and in writing upon topics of law. He edited the Madison papers published by Congress as a public document.

JOHN JORDAN CRITTENDEN

JOHN J. CRITTENDEN—Attorney General from March 6, 1841, to September 11, 1841, and from August 14, 1850, to March 7, 1853. Born near Versailles, Kentucky, September 10, 1787. Son of John and Judith (Harris) Crittenden. Educated at William and Mary College. Married, in 1811, Miss Sally O. Lee. Died in Frankfort, Kentucky, July 26, 1863.

1809—Attorney General for Illinois Territory.
1811—Member Kentucky Legislature.
1817—United States Senator.
1821—Member Kentucky Legislature.
1827—United States Attorney for Kentucky.
1835—United States Senator.
1841—Attorney General of the United States.
1842—United States Senator.
1848—Governor of Kentucky.
1850—Attorney General of the United States.
1855—United States Senator.
1861—Member national House of Representatives.

Two short terms as Attorney General, one of six months and the other for two and a half years, represent the cabinet service of John J. Crittenden, yet he gave more than forty years of his life to the service of the public, twenty of them being as a member of the United States Senate. He was descended from revolutionary stock, his father having served in the Continental Army with the rank of major. Leaving William and Mary College young Crittenden studied law and must have early displayed great talents in that profession, for we find him at the early age of twenty-two serving as attorney general for the territory of Illinois under an appointment by President Madison.

Mr. Crittenden after serving a short time in Illinois returned to Kentucky and entered upon the active practice of his profession at Russelville. During a part of the war with Great Britain Mr. Crittenden served on the staff of Governor Shelby, and was at the battle of the Thames. At the age of twenty-four he was a member of the Kentucky Legislature, serving six years, when he was sent to the United States Senate, serving from March 4, 1817, to March 3, 1819, when he resigned to again engage in the practice of his profession. He again served several terms in the Kentucky Legislature, and in 1827 was appointed United States Attorney for the District of Kentucky by President John Quincy Adams. Two years later he was removed by President Jackson.

In 1835 he was again in the United States Senate, serving until he resigned in 1841 to accept a place in the cabinet of President William Henry Harrison as Attorney General. When the cabinet broke up, owing to the severing of party ties by President Tyler, Mr. Crittenden

resigned. He was almost immediately returned to the United States Senate. In 1848 he was elected governor of Kentucky, and in 1850 President Fillmore called him into the cabinet as Attorney General. He served through the administration of President Fillmore. In 1856 he was for the third time sent to the United States Senate.

Mr. Crittenden was a firm adherent of the Union, and when the clouds of war began to darken the horizon he offered in the Senate a measure to compromise the differences between the two sections of the country, but it proved to be unsatisfactory to both sides. He joined with Senator Douglas in an appeal to the South, closing with the words: "Don't give up the ship! Don't despair of the republic." In the Senate Mr. Crittenden ranked as one of the great lawyers of that body. In 1861 he was elected to the national House of Representatives as a Unionist.

HUGH SWINTON LEGARRE

HUGH SWINTON LEGARRE—Attorney General from September 20, 1841, to June 20, 1843. Born in Charleston, South Carolina, January 2, 1797. Son of Solomon and Mary (Swinton) Legarre. Educated at College of South Carolina. Died in Boston, Massachusetts, June 20, 1843.

1820—Member South Carolina Legislature.
1824—Member South Carolina Legislature.
1830—Attorney General of South Carolina.
1832—Charge d'Affairs at Brussels.
1836—Member national House of Representatives.
1841—Attorney General of the United States.

Hugh S. Legarre was of Huguenot stock. After graduating from college he spent some months in Paris, France, devoting himself to the study of mathematics. He also attended lectures at Edinburgh, Scotland. He traveled extensively in Europe, returning to the United States in 1820. He was almost immediately elected to the South Carolina Legislature. At the time of the nullification excitement he was Attorney General of the state. He steadfastly opposed nullification and supported the administration of President Jackson in its attempts to enforce the laws.

Mr. Legarre was one of the editors of the *Southern Review*, a quarterly publication, and wrote much on political topics. From 1832 to 1836 he was charge d'affairs to Belgium. In 1836 he was elected to Congress as a Union Democrat and took an active part in the debates. In the campaign of 1840 he supported General William Henry Harrison for President. On the break-up of the cabinet of President Tyler Mr. Legarre was made Attorney General. He died suddenly while holding that office.

JOHN NELSON

JOHN NELSON—Attorney General from July 1, 1843, to March 4, 1845. Born in Fredericktown, Maryland, June 1, 1791. Son of General Roger Nelson. Educated at William and Mary College. Died in Baltimore, Maryland, January 8, 1860.

1821—Member national House of Representatives.
1831—Minister to Naples.
1843—Attorney General of the United States.

John Nelson came from a distinguished Maryland family. His father served in the Continental Army during the Revolutionary War, reaching the grade of brigadier general. After the war he filled several important local offices and served four terms in Congress. The son was educated at William and Mary College, graduating in 1811. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1813. Like his father he filled several important local offices and was then sent to Congress, serving one term. He was minister to Naples for one year and served nearly two years as Attorney General.

NATHAN CLIFFORD

NATHAN CLIFFORD—Attorney General from October 18, 1846, to March 18, 1848. Born in Rumney, New Hampshire, August 18, 1803. Son of Nathan and Lydia (Simpson) Clifford. Educated at Dartmouth College. Married Hannah Ayer. Died in Cornish, Maine, July 25, 1881.

1830—Member Maine Legislature.
1834—Attorney General of Maine.
1838—Member national House of Representatives.
1846—Attorney General of the United States.
1848—Special Envoy to Mexico.
1858—Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

After leaving college Mr. Clifford studied law and on being admitted to the bar in 1827 removed to the state of Maine. He served in the State Legislature and as attorney general of the state and also two terms as a representative in Congress. It was while he was Attorney General that President Polk sent him as a special envoy to Mexico to negotiate a treaty of peace with that country. President Buchanan appointed him one of the justices of the Supreme Court in 1858.

REVERDY JOHNSON

REVERDY JOHNSON—Attorney General from March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850. Born at Annapolis, Maryland, May 21, 1796. Son of John and ——— (Ghischin) Johnson. Educated at St. John's College. Died at Annapolis, Maryland, February 10, 1876.

1821—Member Maryland Senate.
1845—United States Senator.
1849—Attorney General of the United States.
1860—Member Maryland Senate.
1862—United States Senator.
1868—Minister to England.

The father of Reverdy Johnson was himself an eminent lawyer, ranking among the foremost of the Maryland bar. Reverdy entered St. John's College at the age of six years, remaining in the institution for ten years. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1815, beginning the practice at Upper Marlboro, but in 1817 he removed to Baltimore. There he soon became prominent, having a very large and lucrative practice. While engaged in the active practice of his profession he published seven volumes of reports of the decisions of the Maryland Supreme Court. In 1835 he met with an accident which deprived him of the sight of one eye. Henry A. Wise, of Virginia, challenged John Stanley, a member of Congress from North Carolina, to a duel. Mr. Wise selected Mr. Johnson as his second, and while the two were engaged in pistol practice, Mr. Johnson fired at a tree. The bullet rebounded, striking him in the eye.

President Taylor gathered into his cabinet a number of great lawyers—John M. Clayton, William M. Meredith, Jacob Collamer, William R. Preston, Thomas Ewing and Reverdy Johnson, the latter ranking with the greatest. Each of these men were at the head of the profession in their states when chosen for the cabinet.

Mr. Johnson was a Whig in politics, but in the Senate he supported the policy of the administration in the war with Mexico. In his second senatorial term he voted for the constitutional amendment abolishing slavery. He opposed the congressional plan of reconstruction and supported that of President Johnson.

As minister to Great Britain he negotiated a treaty for the settlement of the Alabama claims, but the treaty was rejected by he Senate. He died suddenly from a stroke of paralysis.

CALEB CUSHING

CALEB CUSHING—Attorney General from March 8, 1853, to March 10, 1857. Born in Salisbury, Massachusetts, January 17, 1800. Son of John Newmarch Cushing. Educated at Harvard College. Married, in 1823, Miss Caroline Wilde. Died at Newburyport, Massachusetts, January 2, 1879.

1825—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1827—Member Massachusetts Senate.
1833—Member Massachusetts Senate.
1835—Member national House of Representatives.
1843—Commissioner to China.
1845—Member Massachusetts Legislature.

1850—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1852—Judge of Supreme Court of Massachusetts.
1853—Attorney General of the United States.
1866—Member of Commission to Codify the Laws of United States.
1872—United States Counsel at Geneva Tribunal.
1874—Minister to Spain.

Caleb Cushing has the unique distinction of having been twice rejected by the United States Senate for two important positions to which he had been nominated by the President. In 1841 President Tyler nominated him for Secretary of the Treasury and in 1874 President Grant nominated him for Chief Justice of the United States, but in both cases the Senate refused to confirm. His rejection as Secretary of the Treasury was occasioned by the feeling caused by the actions of President Tyler. His rejection as Chief Justice was occasioned by the discovery of a letter he had written during the Civil War to Jefferson Davis recommending to him the bearer for employment in the service of the Confederacy.

Mr. Cushing and Edward Everett were classed as the two greatest linguists ever holding a seat in Congress or in the cabinet. Mr. Cushing was able to read and translate all the languages of Europe and many of those of Asia.

He entered college at the age of thirteen years and was graduated at seventeen. At the age of nineteen he was a tutor of mathematics and natural philosophy in Harvard College. He was admitted to the bar in 1822 and within a few years stood among the leaders of the Massachusetts bar, ranking with Webster and Choate. He served eight years in Congress, where he was regarded as one of the greatest of the congressional orators. He won a great reputation from a debate he had with Ben Hardin, of Kentucky, who was known by the sobriquet of "The Kitchen Knife," from the bitterness with which he assailed every one who differed with him in Congress. Mr. Cushing was one of the youngest members, but he openly assailed Hardin with a sarcasm and irony that set the House to shouts of laughter. He gave to Hardin a name that followed him in all his after career. Hardin freely quoted in all his speeches from Homer. Of this peculiarity Mr. Cushing said he regretted "to observe upon the floor of the House a disputant who, with neither the courage of Achilles for the combat, nor the wisdom of Ulysses for the council, yet with the grey hairs of Nestor on his head, condescended to perpetually play the part of the snarling Thersites."

Mr. Cushing was a Whig and strongly opposed the administration of President Jackson, especially in its warfare on the United States Bank. He made one of the most elaborate speeches during that debate, in which he recited all the points of accusation against the Democratic party from the beginning of the government.

When President Tyler broke with the Whig party Mr. Cushing followed him. In 1843 the President sent him first as commissioner and

then as envoy extraordinary to China, where he negotiated a treaty and established diplomatic relations with the celestial empire. Completing his mission to China he made a trip around the world before returning to the United States.

Mr. Cushing was an ardent supporter of the scheme to annex Texas, and when the war with Mexico resulted he raised and equipped a regiment at his own expense and led it to the front. He was later made a brigadier general. He remained with the Democratic party and presided over the conventions of that party in Charleston and Baltimore in 1860, but when the war between the states came he sided with the Union and was employed by President Lincoln on several important missions. In 1872 he was selected by President Grant as one of the counsel for the government before the Geneva Tribunal and from 1874 to 1877 was minister to Spain.

As Attorney General the opinions of Mr. Cushing were distinguished for research and learning. He had a vast fund of knowledge in law, in history, in diplomacy and in general literature.

JEREMIAH SULLIVAN BLACK

JEREMIAH S. BLACK—Attorney General from March 11, 1857, to December 19, 1860; Secretary of State from December 17, 1860, to March 6, 1861. Born in Summit county, Pennsylvania, January 10, 1810. Son of Henry and Mary (Sullivan) Black. Educated in district schools. Married, in 1836, Miss Foward. Died in York, Pennsylvania, August 19, 1883.

1842—Presiding Judge of Pennsylvania Court of Common Pleas.
1851—Chief Justice of Pennsylvania.
1857—Attorney General of the United States.
1860—Secretary of State.
1872—Member Pennsylvania Constitutional Convention.

Jeremiah S. Black was one of the most distinguished lawyers of the country. While a lad he lived and worked on a farm, but was anxious to secure an education. The opportunities did not offer, but he devoted every spare moment to reading. It is related of him that when a boy his father was about to make one of his periodical trips to the city, and on inquiring what present he should bring to his son he was asked for a copy of Shakespeare. His father was a member of Congress and a man of note in his section of Pennsylvania.

Finally getting an opportunity to study law young Black applied himself with such diligence that he was admitted to the bar before he was of legal age. He rapidly rose to eminence and at the age of thirty-three was appointed presiding judge of the Court of Common Pleas. Later he was elected chief justice of the Supreme Court of the state. His eminence in his profession amply justified President Buchanan in appointing him Attorney General.

When the Southern states began to pass ordinances of secession President Buchanan asked from Attorney General Black an opinion as to the powers of the President as to using the army and navy in the seceding states. The Attorney General replied that the military force could not be used under the acts of 1795 and 1807 within the limits of a state where there were no United States judges or marshals. All those officers in the seceding states having resigned, it followed the military could not be used. Later Judge Black reconsidered this view and recommended the sending of troops to reinforce the forts and to enforce the federal laws. In an opinion to the President Mr. Black said: "Whether the retirement of a state from the Union be the exercise of a right reserved in the Constitution or a revolutionary movement, it is certain that you have not in either case the authority to recognize her independence or to absolve her from her federal relations."

On the resignation of the State Department by Secretary Cass Mr. Black was transferred to that department. In February, 1861, only a few days before the inauguration of President Lincoln, Secretary Black addressed a forcible circular letter to the American diplomatic representatives in Europe, instructing them to use every effort to prevent a recognition of the Southern Confederacy. In the cabinet as Attorney General and as head of the State Department Mr. Black advocated the most urgent measures to prevent secession.

In February, 1861, only a few days before the expiration of his term, President Buchanan nominated Mr. Black to a vacancy on the United States Supreme Bench, but the nomination was not acted on by the Senate. Mr. Black was one of the counsel of President Johnson in his impeachment trial.

EDWARD BATES

EDWARD BATES—Attorney General from March 6, 1861, to November 30, 1864. Born in Belmont, Goochland county, Virginia, September 4, 1793. Son of Thomas F. Bates. Educated at Charlotte Hall Academy, Maryland. Married, in May, 1829, Julia D. Coulter. Died in St. Louis, Missouri, March 25, 1869.

1820—Member Missouri Constitutional Convention.
1822—Member Missouri Legislature.
1822—United States Attorney for Missouri.
1827—Member national House of Representatives.
1830—Member Missouri Senate.
1834—Member Missouri House of Representatives.
1861—Attorney General of the United States.

Mr. Bates was of Quaker descent, but his father left the tenets of that church and became a gallant soldier during the War for Independence. After receiving an academic education Mr. Bates removed to St. Louis, Missouri, to practice law and was admitted to the bar in 1817. With occasional interruptions to serve as a member of the state

legislature and one term in Congress, Mr. Bates devoted himself to the practice of his profession. He was originally a Whig in politics, but being opposed to slavery he united with the Republicans when that party was organized. In the national convention of the Republicans in 1860 he received a number of votes as a candidate for the presidency. He was the father of fifteen children. In the cabinet of President Lincoln he sustained the President in all his policies, especially those intended to restore the Union.

JAMES SPEED

JAMES SPEED—Attorney General from December 5, 1864, to July 16, 1866. Born in Jefferson county, Kentucky, March 11, 1812. Son of John and Lucy (Gilmer) Speed. Educated at St. Joseph's College, Bardstown, Kentucky. Married, in 1841, Jennie Cochrane. Died in Jefferson county, Kentucky, June 25, 1887.

1841—Member Kentucky Legislature.
1861—Member Kentucky Senate.
1864—Attorney General of the United States.

Mr. Speed's ancestors were among the pioneer settlers of Kentucky. After taking a classical course at St. Joseph's College, Mr. Speed studied law at Transylvania University. He became one of the most distinguished lawyers of the state. He was an opponent of slavery and in 1861 was elected to the Kentucky Senate as a Union man, where he earnestly and energetically opposed all efforts to take the state out of the Union.

As Attorney General Mr. Speed appeared for the government in a large number of important cases growing out of the Civil War. After leaving the cabinet he returned to Louisville to practice his profession.

HENRY STANBERY

HENRY STANBERY—Attorney General from July 24, 1866, to March 12, 1868. Born in New York city, February 20, 1803. Son of Jonas Stanbery. Educated at Washington College, Pennsylvania. Married Frances Beecher; Cecilia Bower. Died in New York city, January 26, 1881.

1846—Attorney General of Ohio.
1850—Member Ohio Constitutional Convention.
1866—Attorney General of the United States.

When Henry Stanbery was eleven years old his parents removed to Ohio. There the young man, after completing a collegiate course at Washington College, studied law. He was admitted to the bar in 1824. He gradually grew to distinction in his profession and in 1846 was

elected attorney general of the state. He did not participate to any extent in political affairs. By 1860 he was counted among the ablest lawyers of the country, having a large practice in the Supreme Court of the United States. During the Civil War and at its close Mr. Stanbery appeared as special counsel for the government in a number of important cases before the United States Supreme Court. He was one of the counsel for the government in the noted treason case of Bowles, Milligan and Horsey in 1865. The decision in that case was one of the most important delivered by the Supreme Court, as it defined the limitations of trials by military commissions.

Mr. Stanbery was appointed Attorney General by President Johnson, but resigned that office to act as counsel for the President in his impeachment trial. After the failure of the impeachment the President again nominated Mr. Stanbery as Attorney General, but the Senate rejected the nomination.

EBENEZER ROCKWOOD HOAR

EBENEZER R. HOAR—Attorney General from March 11, 1869, to July 7, 1870. Born in Concord, Massachusetts, February 21, 1816. Son of Samuel and ——— (Sherman) Hoar. Educated at Harvard College. Died in Concord, Massachusetts, January 31, 1895.

1846—Member Massachusetts Senate.
1849—Judge of the Massachusetts Court of Common Pleas.
1859—Judge of the Massachusetts Supreme Court.
1869—Attorney General of the United States.
1871—Member Joint High Commission on Alabama Claims.
1871—Member national House of Representatives.

Mr. Hoar was from one of the most distinguished Massachusetts families. His father was long an eminent jurist and served several terms in Congress. His mother was a daughter of Roger Sherman, long a justice of the United States Supreme Court. Ebenezer entered Harvard College when he was sixteen years of age and graduated in 1835. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1840. For four years he served as judge of the Massachusetts Court of Common Pleas and ten years as a member of the Supreme Court of the state.

When he was called into the cabinet by President Grant Mr. Hoar was regarded as one of the most eminent jurists of the country. His first official act was to give the President an opinion as to the eligibility of Alexander Stewart, who had been nominated as Secretary of the Treasury. He decided that Mr. Stewart could not serve. As Attorney General Mr. Hoar insisted that the new circuit judges provided for by a recent act of Congress should be selected from the best lawyers without senatorial dictation. This angered many of the senators, but President Grant sustained him.

AARON TAPPAN AKERMAN

AARON T. AKERMAN—Attorney General from July 8, 1870, to January 9, 1872. Born in New Hampshire in 1823. Educated at Dartmouth College. Died at Cartersville, Georgia, December 21, 1880.

1866—United States Attorney for Georgia.
1870—Attorney General of the United States.

After graduating from Dartmouth College in 1842 Mr. Akerman studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1844. In 1850 he went South and located at Elberon, Georgia. He took little part in politics, but when the tide of secession became strong he opposed it with what influence he could exert. After the state passed the ordinance of secession he ceased his opposition and finally cast in his fortunes with the current feeling. After the war he accepted the result and became a Republican.

The office of Attorney General had just been enlarged by act of Congress when President Grant called Mr. Akerman to fill that position. Prior to this the Attorney General had been acting under the provisions of the act approved September 24, 1789, establishing judicial courts of the United States. That act provided there should be "appointed a meet person, learned in the law, to act as Attorney General of the United States." It was made his duty to prosecute and conduct all suits in the Supreme Court in which the United States was concerned and to give advice and opinions on questions of law when required by the President or requested by heads of departments.

Under an act approved June 22, 1870, a Department of Justice was created, of which the Attorney General was to be the head. By this act a number of officials hitherto acting with other departments were brought directly under the Attorney General. Attorney General Akerman organized the Department of Justice in accordance with the provisions of the act. The cabinet of President Grant underwent many changes and in the changes Attorney General Akerman resigned and retired to private life and to the active practice of his profession.

GEORGE HENRY WILLIAMS

GEORGE H. WILLIAMS—Attorney General from January 10, 1872, to May 15, 1875. Born in New Lebanon, New York, March 22, 1823. Son of Tabor D. and Lydia (Goodrich) Williams. Academic education. Married, in 1850, Kate Van Antwerp; Mrs. Kate George. Died at Portland, Oregon, April 4, 1910.

1847—United States District Judge for Iowa.
1852—Chief Justice of Oregon.
1858—Member Oregon Constitutional Convention.
1865—United States Senator.
1872—Attorney General of the United States.

Mr. Williams was admitted to the bar in 1844 and almost immediately removed to Iowa. His abilities as a jurist were such that in 1847 he was appointed by President Polk district judge for the territory of Iowa. In 1852 President Pierce made him chief justice of Oregon territory and Oregon remained his home until his death. Mr. Williams became a Republican on the organization of that party. In the Senate he was very active in reconstruction legislation and introduced the act regulating the tenure of office intended to prevent President Johnson from removing members of his cabinet and other officers.

As Attorney General Mr. Williams was the subject of much adverse criticism, and when President Grant nominated him for Chief Justice of the United States, vice Chase, deceased, so much opposition was displayed that the President withdrew his name. Among his other public services was that of member of the commission that arranged for the Geneva Arbitration.

EDWARDS PIERREPONT

EDWARDS PIERREPONT—Attorney General from May 15, 1875, to May 31, 1876. Born in New Haven, Connecticut, March 4, 1817. Son of Giles and Eunice (Munson) Pierrepont. Educated at Yale College. Died in New York City, March 9, 1892.

1857—Judge of the Superior Court of New York city.
1867—Member New York Constitutional Convention.
1869—United States Attorney for New York.
1875—Attorney General of the United States.
1876—Minister to England.

Mr. Pierrepont was a descendant of one of the great families of England. Graduating from Yale College in 1837 with one of the honors of his class Mr. Pierrepont took a law course and was admitted to the bar in 1840. He began the practice of his profession in Columbus, Ohio, but in 1846 removed to New York city. He quickly rose to be one of the leading lawyers of the city. He was active in the work of prosecuting and overthrowing the notorious Tweed Ring in that city.

As Attorney General he represented the government in a number of important cases. He gave to Secretary of State Fish an elaborate opinion on Nationality and Acquired Nationality, an opinion that won for him a wide reputation in this country and in Europe. He was United States minister to England at the time General Grant visited that country on his tour around the world, and it was at his suggestion the British government received the General with the same ceremonies accorded by custom to visiting crowned heads of other countries, a precedent followed by all the other governments visited by the General.

CHARLES DEVENS

CHARLES DEVENS—Attorney General from March 12, 1877, to March 7, 1881. Born in Charleston, Massachusetts, April 4, 1820. Son of Charles and Mary (Lithgow) Devens. Educated at Harvard College. Never married. Died at Charleston, Massachusetts, January 7, 1891.

1848—Member Massachusetts Senate.
1849—United States Marshal for Massachusetts.
1862—Brigadier General of Volunteers.
1867—Judge of the Superior Court of Massachusetts.
1873—Judge of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts.
1877—Attorney General of the United States.
1881—Justice of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts.

Charles Devens, Attorney General during the administration of President Hayes, was one of the most distinguished of the volunteer officers in the Union Army during the Civil War. He was trying an important case in court when the news came that President Lincoln had called for seventy-five thousand volunteers. He requested another attorney to take his place and immediately offered his services to the governor of the state. He was made major of a regiment and the next day departed for the front. In July, 1861, he was made colonel of a regiment, and with the regiment participated in the ill-fated battle of Ball's Bluff, where he was struck by a musket ball.

In 1862 he was made a brigadier general of volunteers and was with General McClellan in the Peninsula campaign, taking an active part in most of the battles. He was again wounded at the battle of Fair Oaks, but would not leave the field. At the battle of Fredericksburg he was wounded for the third time. He was with General Meade at Gettysburg and with General Grant in the Wilderness and on to the end at Appomattox. In the battle of Cold Harbor he caused himself to be carried along the front of the line on a stretcher, being unable, from sickness, to mount his horse. He led the advance into Richmond and for a time was military governor of the city.

Mr. Devens was graduated from Harvard in 1838 and was admitted to the bar in 1840. He at once established himself as a most able advocate. Returning to Massachusetts at the close of the war he devoted himself again to the practice of his profession, but was soon placed upon the bench. In making up his cabinet President Hayes first designated General Devens as Secretary of War, and he really desired that position, but it being developed that Mr. McCrary, who had been designed for the position of Attorney General, had given an opinion favorable to the McGarrahan claim, one of the celebrated causes then pending, and as the opinion was opposed to that held by the President, it was thought best not to make him Attorney General, so he was made Secretary of War and General Devens put at the head of the Department of Justice, where he added largely to his reputation as a lawyer. He served throughout the administration of President Hayes and then returned to Boston and to his profession.

WAYNE MCVEAGH

WAYNE MCVEAGH—Attorney General from March 7, 1881, to November 14, 1881. Born in Phoenixville, Pennsylvania, April 19, 1833. Educated at Yale College.

1870—Minister to Turkey.
1811—Attorney General of the United States.

During his collegiate course Mr. McVeagh became distinguished as a forcible debater and this distinction followed him in his career as an attorney. During the Civil War he served as major of a cavalry regiment.

Mr. McVeagh was Attorney General at the time the Star Route frauds were unearthed and began a vigorous prosecution of those accused of being concerned in the frauds. President Arthur, when he became President on the death of President Garfield, earnestly urged Mr. McVeagh to remain in the cabinet, but he persisted in his resignation.

BENJAMIN HARRISON BREWSTER

BENJAMIN H. BREWSTER—Attorney General from January 3, 1882, to March 8, 1885. Born in Salem county, New Jersey, October 13, 1816. Son of Francis E. and Maria (Hampton) Brewster. Educated at Princeton College. Married, in 1857, Elizabeth von Myrbacke de Reinfeldt; in 1870, Mary Walker. Died in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, April 4, 1888.

1846—Commissioner of Cherokee Claims.
1867—Attorney General of Pennsylvania.
1882—Attorney General of the United States.

Mr. Brewster was a descendant of old Puritan stock. Attending Princeton College he graduated from that institution in 1834 with all the honors of his class. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1838 and almost at once began a career of great success as a lawyer. As Attorney General in the cabinet of President Arthur it fell to his lot to prosecute those accused of defrauding the government in contracts for carrying the mails on the Star Routes. In this prosecution he was very successful.

AUGUSTUS HILL GARLAND

AUGUSTUS H. GARLAND—Attorney General from March 9, 1895, to March 5, 1889. Born in Tipton county, Tennessee, June 11, 1832. Son of Rufus K. and Barbara (Hill) Garland. Educated at St. Joseph's College, Bardstown, Kentucky. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, June 26, 1899.

1874—Governor of Arkansas.
1876—United States Senator.
1885—Attorney General of the United States.

After his admission to the bar in 1853 Mr. Garland removed to Arkansas. At that time he was a Whig in politics, but when that party went to pieces he united with the Democrats. He early became one of the most prominent attorneys of Arkansas. He was one among the earliest and most ardent opponents of secession when the ballots of the country decided in favor of Mr. Lincoln for President. Arkansas having voted to secede, he went with his state and was elected a member of the Provisional Congress which formed the Confederate government. He afterward served in both the House and Senate of the Confederacy.

In 1866 he was elected to the United States Senate, but was refused a seat because he could not take the test oath then required of all members of Congress. He was refused the right to practice his profession for the same reason and brought an action to test the validity of the oath. The case reached the Supreme Court of the United States and was watched with great interest, especially by those who had taken part in the Confederate government. Mr. Garland argued his own case and won it. His argument on this occasion gave him a national reputation. In 1874 he was elected governor of his state and two years later was sent to the United States Senate, where he served with great distinction until he resigned in 1885 to accept a position in the cabinet of President Cleveland.

After the close of the Cleveland administration Mr. Garland entered upon the practice of his profession in Washington, District of Columbia. On January 26, 1899, while making an argument before the Supreme Court of the United States he was stricken down by apoplexy and immediately expired.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON MILLER

WILLIAM H. H. MILLER—Attorney General from March 6, 1889, to March 6, 1893. Born at Augusta, Oneida county, New York, September 6, 1840. Son of Curtis and Lucy (Duncan) Miller. Educated at Hamilton College. Married, December 23, 1863, Gertrude A. Bunce.

1889—Attorney General of the United States.

Leaving college in 1861 Mr. Miller taught school for a short time in Ohio. He studied law in the office of Morrison R. Waite, afterward Chief Justice of the United States. Before being admitted to the bar he accepted the appointment of superintendent of public schools in Peru, Indiana. At Peru he was admitted to the bar in 1865. The next year he removed to Fort Wayne, Indiana, and there began a successful career as a lawyer. In 1874 he became a partner of Benjamin Harrison, afterward President of the United States.

As Attorney General he won the respect of the Supreme Court and the bar of the country by the vigor and legal learning displayed in prosecuting the pleas of the United States. Information having been received that Judge Terry, of California, was intending to make an assault upon Justice Field of the United States Supreme Court on his arrival in California to hold a session of the court, Attorney General Miller instructed the United States marshal of California to protect the justice at all hazards. In doing so the marshal shot and instantly killed Judge Terry. The affair caused great excitement throughout the country, but the Attorney General boldly defended his course in the courts and was fully justified by the court.

JUDSON HARMON

JUDSON HARMON—Attorney General from June 11, 1895, to March 6, 1897. Born in Hamilton county, Ohio, February 3, 1845. Son of Rev. B. F. and Julia (Bronson) Harmon. Married, in June, 1870, Miss Scobey.

18 —Judge of the Cincinnati Superior Court.
1895—Attorney General of the United States.
1909—Governor of Ohio.
1911—Governor of Ohio.

Mr. Harmon was admitted to the bar in 1869 and was soon recognized as one of the leading members of the profession in Cincinnati. He was a Democrat in politics, but did not take an active part in political matters. His temperament was eminently judicial and he preferred the practice of his profession to holding office.

As Attorney General of the United States he maintained his reputation as a lawyer of great ability. In 1909 he was the Democratic candidate for governor of Ohio and was elected against the heavy Republican plurality in the state. His administration was popular and he was elected for a second term in 1911. In 1910 he was appointed by the President a member of a commission to investigate the affairs of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railroad and in his report he urged the indictment of several persons, among them being Paul Morton, Secretary of the Navy. In 1912 he was a prominent candidate for the Democratic nomination for President.

JOSEPH MCKENNA

JOSEPH MCKENNA—Attorney General from March 7, 1897, to January 25, 1898. Born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, August 10, 1842. Son of John and Mary (Johnson) McKenna. Educated at Benecita Collegiate Institute. Married, June 10, 1869, Amanda F. Borneman.

1868—District Attorney of Solane county, California.
1875—Member California House of Representatives.
1878—Unsuccessful candidate for Congress on Republican ticket.

1885—Member United States House of Representatives.
1892—Circuit Judge of the United States.
1897—Attorney General of the United States.
1898—Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

Mr. McKenna removed to California in 1855 and entered upon the practice of the law after graduating from the Benecita Collegiate Institute. He early took a place at the head of the profession and was twice elected district attorney for Solane county. He was an ardent Republican in politics, and after serving a term in the legislature of California was nominated by his party for Congress, but he failed in getting elected.

His time came, however, a few years later and he was four times elected a member of the national House of Representatives. He resigned this position in 1892 to accept an appointment from President Benjamin Harrison as circuit judge for the California Circuit. He resigned his place on the bench on being appointed Attorney General of the United States by President McKinley. He served as Attorney General but one year, when he was elevated to the bench of the United States Supreme Court as Associate Justice to succeed Justice Field, retired.

JOHN W. GRIGGS

JOHN W. GRIGGS—Attorney General from February 1, 1898, to April 1, 1901. Born in Newton, New Jersey, July 10, 1849. Son of Daniel and Emmeline (Johnson) Griggs. Educated at Lafayette College and Princeton University. Married, April 15, 1893, L. Elizabeth Price.

1876—Member New Jersey General Assembly.
1882—Member New Jersey Senate.
1896—Governor of New Jersey.
1898—Attorney General of the United States.
1901—Member Permanent Court at The Hague.

Mr. Griggs was the first Republican elected governor of New Jersey for a quarter of century. This position he resigned to accept the place as Attorney General in the cabinet of President McKinley. His home was in Paterson, New Jersey, where he was a successful attorney. In 1909 he resigned the attorney generalship and engaged again in the practice of his profession in New York. There he also became interested in numerous business enterprises. As Attorney General he ranked high and was successful in most of the litigation in which he took official part.

CHARLES JOSEPH BONAPARTE

CHARLES JOSEPH BONAPARTE—Secretary of the Navy from July 1, 1905, to December 12, 1906; Attorney General from December 12, 1906, to March 5, 1909. Born in Baltimore, Maryland, June 3, 1851. Son of Jerome and Susan May (Williams) Bonaparte. Educated at Harvard College. Married, September 1, 1875, Miss Ellen Channing Day.

1902—Member United States Board of Indian Commission.
1904—Presidential Elector.
1905—Secretary of the Navy.
1906—Attorney General of the United States.

Mr. Bonaparte was a scion of a distinguished family, being a lineal descendant of Jerome Bonaparte, later king of Westphalia, youngest brother of the great Napoleon. A lawyer of great distinction Mr. Bonaparte was at the head of the Baltimore bar when he was selected by President Roosevelt as Secretary of the Navy. This department, important as it is, was not satisfactory to Mr. Bonaparte. He was not suited to such a place, as his mind and training had always been of a legal nature. When Attorney General Moody was advanced to a place on the bench of the Supreme Court Mr. Bonaparte was transferred to the Department of Justice, a place for which he was eminently qualified. He served during the remainder of President Roosevelt's term when he resumed the practice of his profession in Baltimore.

GEORGE WOODWARD WICKERSHAM

GEORGE WOODWARD WICKERSHAM—Attorney General from March 5, 1909, to March 4, 1913. Born at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, September 19, 1858. Son of Samuel Morris and Elizabeth C. (Wood) Wickersham. Educated at Lehigh University.

1909—Attorney General of the United States.

Mr. Wickersham began the practice of his profession at Philadelphia, but removed to New York in 1882. He there became much interested in civic and charitable matters. When chosen by President Taft for the office of Attorney General he was said to stand near the top as a lawyer. As Attorney General he prosecuted a number of cases against parties charged with offenses against the anti-trust laws and was eminently successful. At the close of President Taft's term Mr. Wickersham resumed the practice of his profession in New York.

JAMES CLARK MCREYNOLDS

JAMES CLARK MCREYNOLDS—Attorney General from March 5, 1913, to August 12, 1914. Born at Elkton, Kentucky, February 3, 1862. Son of John O. and Ellen (Reeves) McReynolds. Educated at Vanderbilt University and the University of Virginia. Unmarried.

1903—Assistant Attorney General of the United States.
1913—Attorney General of the United States.
1914—Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.

As a lawyer Mr. McReynolds began the practice in Nashville, Tennessee. For three years he was professor of law in Vanderbilt University. While thus engaged he was appointed by President Roosevelt Assistant Attorney General of the United States, serving until March 5, 1907. He then removed to New York to engage in private practice. He served the government as special attorney in several important suits for the enforcement of the anti-trust laws.

President Wilson named him for the position of Attorney General and he was promptly confirmed by the Senate. His time as head of the Department of Justice was not long, for when a vacancy occurred on the bench of the Supreme Court Attorney General McReynolds was advanced to that position. He was appointed August 29, 1914, but did not take the office until October 12 the same year. On the Supreme Bench he is regarded as one of the ablest associate justices.

THOMAS WATT GREGORY

THOMAS WATT GREGORY—Attorney General from August 29, 1914, to March 4, 1919. Born at Crawfordsville, Mississippi, November 6, 1861. Son of Francis Robert and Mary Cornelia (Watt) Gregory. Educated at Southwestern Presbyterian University and the University of Texas. Married, February 22, 1893, Miss Julia Nalle.

1912—Special Assistant Attorney General.
1914—Attorney General of the United States.

After leaving college Mr. Gregory studied law and was admitted to the Texas bar in 1885. He began the practice at Austin, Texas, early achieving a reputation for his knowledge of the law. He was employed by the state of Texas for several years to prosecute persons accused of violating the anti-trust laws. In this he was very successful, and other high positions were tendered him, but he preferred to remain in the practice of his profession.

In politics he was an ardent Democrat and was one of the delegates from Texas to the Democratic national conventions of 1908 and 1912. Soon after Mr. Wilson became President Mr. Gregory was employed by the Department of Justice as special assistant attorney general to prosecute several of the leading railroads for violations of the Sherman Act. This brought him into national prominence and his success induced the President to name him Attorney General. He assumed that office August 29, 1914.

He became Attorney General at a troublous time for the law officer of the government. War was devastating Europe and charges were freely made that the United States was overrun with spies acting in the interest of Germany, one of the warring nations of Europe. They had to be sought out and prosecuted, the burden falling on the Department of

Justice. Then came the entry of the United States into the struggle and alien property was seized in many parts of the country. The strain on the Attorney General was tremendous, especially as he was subjected to partisan criticism added to criticisms by his own party friends. Finally, tired of the obstacles thrown in his way, he resigned the office and returned to the practice of his profession.

ALEXANDER MITCHELL PALMER

ALEXANDER MITCHELL PALMER—Attorney General from March 5, 1919, to March 4, 1921. Born at Moorehead, Pennsylvania, May 4, 1872. Son of Samuel B. and Caroline (Albert) Palmer. Educated at Swarthmore College. Married, November 27, 1898, Rebecca Hartlet Dixon; August 29, 1923, Margaret Fallon Burrell.

1892—Official stenographer of Forty-third Judicial District, Pennsylvania.
1909—Member national House of Representatives.
1915—Justice of the United States Court of Claims.
1917—Custodian of Alien Property.
1919—Attorney General of the United States.

After leaving college Mr. Palmer began the practice of law at Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania. He became interested in several financial institutions as well as some industrial activities. He early took a deep interest in political affairs and was reckoned as one of the leaders of the Democratic party in his section of the Keystone state. In 1908 he declared himself a candidate for Congress, announcing at the same time that if nominated and elected he would not abide by the unwritten law of the district to change members after one term. He was elected and served from that time until he resigned in 1914 to make the race for the United States Senate. It was said this was at the urgent request of President Wilson. He failed to be elected to the Senate. In the House he was a member of the Committee on Ways and Means and took a large part in the making of a new tariff law.

He was an ardent admirer of Governor Woodrow Wilson and took a very prominent and active part in securing for the governor the Democratic nomination for President in 1912. When Mr. Wilson took his office he offered Mr. Palmer a place in his cabinet as Secretary of War, but Mr. Palmer being a Quaker felt it would not be fitting for him to head the War Department. When Congress enacted the law known as the "Trading with the Enemy Act," authorizing the government to take possession of the property of citizens of Germany and her allies and administer the same, President Wilson appointed Mr. Palmer as alien property custodian.

During his service as custodian he handled an immense business. When he retired to accept a place in the cabinet as Attorney General his office was administering nearly thirty-three thousand trusts of an aggregate value in excess of five hundred million dollars. Just as Pres-

ident Wilson was departing on his second trip to Europe be named Mr. Palmer as Attorney General. He served during the remainder of President Wilson's term.

As custodian of alien property Mr. Palmer had incurred the enmity of some of the socialists of the country and many threats were made against him. On the night of June 2, 1919, a bomb was exploded in front of his dwelling in Washington. The explosion was great enough to alarm a good part of the city. There was, however, but one victim, the man who carried the bomb.

HARRY MICAJAH DAUGHERTY

HARRY MICAJAH DAUGHERTY—Attorney General from March 5, 1921, to April 5, 1924. Born in Washington Courthouse, Ohio, January 26, 1860. Son of John H. and Jane A. (Draper) Daugherty. Educated at the University of Michigan. Married, September 3, 1884, Miss Lucia M. Walker.

1890—Member Ohio Legislature.
1921—Attorney General of the United States.

Mr. Daugherty became an orphan at a very early age, being only four years old when his father died. He studied law and began the practice at Washington Courthouse, but removed to Columbus in 1893. From early manhood Mr. Daugherty took deep interest in politics, especially in managing and directing party affairs.

His appointment as Attorney General by President Harding aroused much adverse criticism, especially by the Democratic press. Hardly was a move made by his department after he assumed its direction that did not bring a storm of criticism. Finally a committee of the Senate was appointed to investigate the charges of malfeasence on his part. The committee held many sessions bringing out much damaging testimony. All this was embarrassing to President Coolidge, who had succeeded President Harding, and on April 5, 1924, he asked for the resignation of the Attorney General, which was promptly tendered.

HARLAN FISKE STONE

HARLAN FISKE STONE—Attorney General from April 7, 1924, to February 5, 1925. Born at Chesterfield, New Hampshire, October 11, 1872. Son of Frederick Lauson and Ann Sophia (Butler) Stone. Educated at Amherst College. Married, in 1899, Miss Agnes Harvey.

1924—Attorney General of the United States.
1925—Associate Justice of the Supreme Court.

The first public office held by Mr. Stone was that of Attorney General, to which he was appointed by President Coolidge. His early life was spent on a New England farm where he grew up, but with a mind

Harlan F. Stone

set upon another career. His American ancestry dates back to the seventeenth century, when Simon Stone settled in Watertown, Massachusetts. Entering Amherst College he became popular with his fellow-students and with the faculty, one of his fellow-students being Calvin Coolidge. Of his college life one writer says:

"Stone as a student had a distinct leaning toward the academic side of college life despite his fondness for sports and outdoor life. He early developed a profound interest for law and literature, and on the walls of his office at the Columbia University and in his home in New York may be found rare old prints, etchings and pictures of the men of history he admired in all these professions."

After graduating from Amherst in 1894 Mr. Stone started teaching at the Putnam High School in Newburyport, Massachusetts, where he taught chemistry and physics. Later he entered Columbia University Law School. His remarkable industry is shown by the fact that while a student in the law school he taught history at Adelphia Academy. After three years of arduous study he received his degree from Columbia Law School in 1898 and was admitted to the bar of New York city the same year. He entered the firm of Wilmer & Canfield. While practicing with his firm he lectured on law at Columbia from 1899 to 1902. He became an adjunct professor in 1903 and a full professor in 1905. In 1910 he was named Kent professor of law and dean of the law school. In 1923 he returned to the active practice of his profession in New York.

In 1918 he was chosen by the Secretary of War a member of a special committee, the other members being Major Stoddard, of the judge advocate general's office, and Judge Mack, of Chicago, to review the cases of "conscientious objectors." As a member of this committee Mr. Stone traveled over the United States from cantonment to cantonment, making studies of the matter submitted to the committee. Later he wrote a book on his experience.

Mr. Stone has been a frequent contributor to law journals. In 1922 his contributions to the *Columbia Law Review* were published in collected form by the Law Review Board. As Attorney General, Mr. Stone emphasized the doctrine he had taught as a professor in college, and in many of his contributions to law journals, that all laws should be rigidly enforced. Appointed Associate Justice of the Supreme Court.

JOHN GARIBALDI SARGENT

JOHN GARIBALDI SARGENT—Attorney General from March 19, 1925. Born at Ludlow, Vermont, October 13, 1860. Son of John Henmon and Ann Eliza (Hanley) Sargent. Educated at Tuft's College. Married, in 1887, Mary L. Gordon.

1898—States Attorney for Windsor county, Vermont.
1900—Secretary of Civil and Military Affairs, Vermont.
1908—Attorney General of Vermont.
1925—Attorney General of the United States.

It was not easy sledding in early life for the future Attorney General. His parents were farmers, tilling rented farms, and young Sargent had to do his share of the work. He did not have an opportunity to attend school until he had reached the age of ten years, but he made excellent use of every opportunity when he did enter school life. When he became a student in the Vermont Liberal Institute at Plymouth he boarded himself. When not attending school he taught, thus earning what would help him on his way through higher institutes of learning. It has been said of him that he was an ardent and industrious student until finally graduating from Tuft's College.

After leaving college he studied law, being admitted to the Vermont bar in 1890. He rose rapidly in his profession and in 1908 became the attorney general of the state. By that time he was regarded as standing at the head of the profession in the state and had made a reputation in the adjoining states.

His nomination by President Coolidge as Attorney General brought to an end a contest between the President and the Senate. When Attorney General Stone was placed on the bench of the Supreme Court President Coolidge nominated as his successor at the head of the Department of Justice Charles B. Warren, of Michigan. This nomination was obnoxious to some of the senators who brought about his rejection. The President promptly renamed him for the office, and again the nomination was refused confirmation. The President then named his personal friend, Mr. Sargent, and the nomination was unanimously confirmed.

AMOS KENDALL

JOHN A.J. CRESWELL

JOHN WANAMAKER

WM. L. WILSON

FRANK HITCHCOCK

The Postoffice Department

During the colonial period, when the colonies were under the King and Parliament, some effort was made to establish a postal service and Benjamin Franklin was appointed Postmaster General for the colonies. Early in 1774 the British ministry, angered by the attitude of Mr. Franklin in regard to the differences between the crown and the colonies, removed him from his office and neglected to appoint a successor. The result was that for about eighteen months the colonies were practically without any regular postal system.

Shortly after the battle of Lexington had demonstrated that the colonies would resist to the utmost, one William Goddard started a postal system on his own account and soon induced the provincial authorities of New Hampshire, Connecticut, Massachusetts and Rhode Island to agree to the establishment of a system of posts operating in those colonies. This was the beginning of our present postal system.

At the session of the second Continental Congress the matter was taken up and a committee consisting of six delegates, of which Dr. Franklin was chairman, was appointed to "consider the best means of establishing posts for conveying letters and intelligence throughout this continent." The committee made a report to Congress and on July 26, 1775, a resolution was adopted "that a Postmaster General be appointed for the United Colonies who shall hold his office at Philadelphia." The resolution also provided that the Postmaster General to be appointed should have a secretary and a comptroller and that a line of posts should be established "from Falmouth (now Portland), in New England, to Savannah, Georgia, with as many cross posts as the Postmaster General shall deem fit."

On the adoption of the resolution Dr. Franklin was unanimously elected as Postmaster General for a term of one year. His salary was fixed at one thousand dollars per annum and that of the secretary and comptroller at three hundred and forty dollars each. Naturally the postal system was a thing of slow growth during the dark years of the War for Independence and in 1783 when, by the Articles of Confederation, the postal system was placed under the exclusive control of Con-

gress, there were only about seventy postoffices in the whole country and the aggregate amount of revenue from the system was about thirty thousand dollars.

On the organization of the present form of government under the Constitution the Postoffice Department was regarded as a temporary affair. It was not organized as an executive department but rather as an independent bureau. By an act approved September 22, 1789, it was provided there should be appointed a Postmaster General who was to be subject to the direction of the President of the United States. It was provided the act should remain in force "until the end of the next session of Congress and no longer." It was entitled "An act for the temporary establishment of the Postoffice." For some years the act was continued annually, it being always provided it should be in force no longer than the end of the next session of Congress.

By an act approved March 3, 1791, it was provided "that all letters to and from the treasurer, comptroller, auditor of the treasury and the assistant to the Secretary of the Treasury, on public service, shall be received and conveyed by the post free of postage." The Postmaster General was also authorized to extend the carrying of the mail from Albany, in the state of New York, to Bennington, in the state of Vermont.

Congress, by an act approved February 22, 1792, established a large number of post routes, describing in detail such routes. The Postmaster General was authorized to contract for carrying the mails over such routes for a period not exceeding eight years, the contractors to receive as compensation all the postage "which shall arise on letters, newspapers and packets conveyed by any such post." It also provided that there should be established at the seat of government "a general postoffice." There was to be one Postmaster General, who was given authority to appoint an assistant and also deputy postmasters at all places where "such shall be found necessary." Under this act postmasters were classed as "deputies." The Postmaster General was to provide for the carrying of the mail by "stage, carriages or horses as he may deem expedient, and as often as he, having regard to the productiveness thereof as well as other circumstances, shall think proper."

The act also provided for the making of proper reports from the deputies. Among its provisions were several fixing punishments for delaying or obstructing the passage of the mails. It detailed how the deputies should conduct their offices and fixed the rate of postage as follows: Single letter, for a distance not exceeding thirty miles, 6 cents; over thirty and not exceeding sixty miles, 8 cents; over sixty and not exceeding one hundred miles, 10 cents; over one hundred and not exceeding one hundred and fifty miles, 12½ cents; over one hundred and fifty and not exceeding two hundred miles, 15 cents; over two hundred and not exceeding two hundred and fifty miles, 17 cents; over two hundred and fifty and not exceeding three hundred and fifty

miles, 20 cents; over three hundred and fifty and not exceeding four hundred and fifty miles, 22 cents; and to or from any place on land more than four hundred and fifty miles, 25 cents. A single letter was to consist of one sheet of paper. It was provided that double letters should pay double postage and triple letters triple postage. Every packet weighing one ounce avoirdupois or more was to pay at the rate of four single letters for each ounce.

If the mails were to be carried by sea the postage rate was fixed at 8 cents for a single letter, 16 cents for a double letter and for a triple letter or packet 24 cents.

The regulations in regard to the receiving of foreign mail were peculiar. It was provided "that no ship or vessel arriving at any port within the United States where a postoffice is established shall be permitted to report, make entry or break bulk till the master or commander shall have delivered to the postmaster all letters directed to any person or persons within the United States, which under his care or within his power, shall be brought in such ship or vessel, other than such as are directed to the owner or consignee." The master or commander of the vessel was required to make oath that he had so delivered all letters. The postmaster was required to pay to the master, commander or other person delivering the letters, except the commanders of foreign packets, two cents for every letter or packet so delivered.

Under this act the government took a monopoly of carrying the mail of the country. One of the curious provisions of the act was fixing a death penalty for secreting, embezzling or destroying, by any person employed in any of the departments of the general postoffice, of any letter or packet containing certain specified articles of value. The death penalty was also prescribed for robbing any carrier of the mail or robbing the mail in any way. This act was to remain in force for a period of two years and no longer. In 1820 a four-year term for postmasters was instituted.

The Postmaster General did not become a member of the cabinet until 1829, when Andrew Jackson was President, and the department was not made an executive department until 1872. In 1810 the Postmaster General was empowered to appoint two assistants; a third was added in 1872 and a fourth in 1892. By the act of 1872 the appointment of assistant postmasters general was placed in the hands of the President.

Under the existing law the Postmaster General is the executive head of the entire postal service of the country. He appoints all the employees and officers of the department except the four assistant postmasters general and the purchasing agent. He also appoints all fourth-class postmasters and the officers and employees of the service at large. He is now chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Postal Savings System.

The First Assistant has charge of the preparation of cases for the appointment of postmasters, establishing, discontinuing or changing the names of postoffices, the regulation of the hours of business in postoffices, and granting leaves of absence to postmasters and the consideration of charges against postmasters; the annual readjustment of presidential postmasters' salaries, the allowance for clerk hire, etc.; and the supervision of the establishing of city delivery and carriers.

The Second Assistant Postmaster General has charge of the general supervision of matters pertaining to the transportation of the mails.

The Third Assistant has charge of the financial matters of the department, the manufacture of postage stamps, stamped envelopes and wrappers; the supervision and management of the money order system, registered mail and the classification of domestic mail matter and the rates of postage.

The Fourth Assistant has charge of all matters appertaining to rural free delivery, and has the custody of supplies for the postal service and the treatment of unmailable and undelivered matter.

When Dr. Franklin was first appointed Postmaster General he used for a seal a rude wood cut of a post rider on horseback, with saddle bags behind him for carrying mail matter. This device for a seal has been ever since retained by the department. Around the device are the words "POSTOFFICE DEPARTMENT, UNITED STATES OF AMERICA."

The first law regulating the pay of railroads for carrying the mails was passed in 1838. This law provided that the pay should not exceed twenty-five per cent more than similar service would cost in stage coaches. Since then the pay has been changed several times.

Postage stamps were unknown in the United States until 1847. Their introduction made a decrease in the postage rates possible since the labor of many clerks could be eliminated. In 1851 the letter rate was reduced to three cents and in 1883 the present rate of two cents was adopted. Now more than twelve billion stamps are used every year.

In 1913 a system of parcels post was established and in 1914 a postal savings system was inaugurated.

Postal affairs between the various nations are now regulated by the Universal Postal Union.

The Universal Postal Union has been in existence fifty years and during that period has been the most potent factor in fostering and establishing friendly relations and advancing the mutual interests of all countries. It will exert a continuing power in the world for universal friendship.

This great advance in the relations of friendly nations was first suggested by the Postmaster General, Montgomery Blair, who in 1862 proposed a conference of the postal authorities of Europe and America to recommend to their governments the adoption in international postal relations of uniform weights, rates of postage and basis for sea

and land transit charges. This resulted in the Paris conference of 1863, attended by officials of the United States, Austria, Belgium, Costa Rica, Denmark, France, Great Britain, the Hanseatic cities, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Prussia, the Sandwich Islands, Spain and Switzerland.

The ease with which the principles promulgated were put into effect and the benefits derived therefrom prepared the governments for the First World Postal Congress which convened in 1874, when a general postal union was formed. Now practically all countries of the world are members.

The revenues of the postal service are derived principally from postage paid on mail through the medium of stamps and stamped paper or in cash on matter mailed without stamps affixed under permit; from the fees on registered, insured and C.O.D. mail collected in the same manner; from the money order and postal savings businesses; and from box rents and other miscellaneous items set forth in the financial tables.

The major source of the postal revenues is, of course, the postage paid on mail. Receipts from this source during the fiscal year of 1924 amounted to $508,223,196.52, or 88.70 per cent of the total revenues, an increase of 6.99 per cent over the postage receipts of the previous year. The postage collected by means of stamps affixed aggregated $446,683,665.13, while that paid in money on matter of the several classes mailed without stamps affixed amounted to $61,539,531.39. The average per capita expenditure for postage for the year was $4.49.

In 1792 the salary of the Postmaster General was $2,000; in 1799, $3,000; in 1819, $4,000; in 1827, $6,000; in 1853, $8,000; in 1873, $10,000; in 1874, $8,000. It is now $12,000.

Roster of Postmasters General

Samuel Osgood, of Massachusetts.
From September 26, 1789, to August 19, 1791.

Timothy Pickering, of Pennsylvania.
From August 19, 1791, to January 2, 1795 (*see* Department of State).

Joseph Habersham, of Georgia.
From February 25, 1795, to November 2, 1801.

Gideon Granger, of Connecticut.
From November 28, 1801, to February 25, 1814.

Return J. Meigs, Jr., of Ohio.
From April 11, 1814, to June 30, 1823.

John McLean, of Ohio.
From July 1, 1823, to March 9, 1829.

William T. Barry, of Kentucky.
From April 6, 1829, to April 30, 1835.

Amos Kendall, of Kentucky.
From May 1, 1835, to May 25, 1840.

John M. Niles, of Connecticut.
From May 26, 1840, to March 3, 1841.

Francis Granger, of New York.
From March 8, 1841, to September 13, 1841.

Charles A. Wickliffe, of Kentucky.
From October 13, 1841, to March 6, 1845.

Cave Johnson, of Tennessee.
From March 7, 1845, to March 5, 1849.

Jacob Collamer, of Vermont.
From March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850.

Nathan K. Hall, of New York.
From July 23, 1850, to September 13, 1852.

Samuel D. Hubbard, of Connecticut.
From September 14, 1852, to March 7, 1853.

James Campbell, of Pennsylvania.
From March 8, 1853, to March 6, 1857.

AARON V. BROWN, of Tennessee.
From March 7, 1857, to March 8, 1859.

JOSEPH HOLT, of Kentucky.
From March 14, 1859, to December 31, 1860.

HORATIO KING, of Maine.
From February 12, 1861, to March 9, 1861.

MONTGOMERY BLAIR, of District of Columbia.
From March 9, 1861, to September 30, 1864.

WILLIAM DENNISON, of Ohio.
From October 1, 1864, to July 16, 1866.

ALEXANDER W. RANDALL, of Wisconsin.
From July 25, 1866, to March 4, 1869.

JOHN A. J. CRESWELL, of Maryland.
From March 6, 1869, to July 6, 1874.

MARSHALL JEWELL, of Connecticut.
From September 1, 1874, to July 12, 1876.

JAMES N. TYNER, of Indiana.
From July 13, 1876, to March 12, 1877.

DAVID M. KEY, of Tennessee.
From March 13, 1877, to August 24, 1880.

HORACE MAYNARD, of Tennessee.
From August 25, 1880, to March 7, 1881.

THOMAS L. JAMES, of New York.
From March 8, 1881, to January 4, 1882.

TIMOTHY O. HOWE, of Wisconsin.
From January 5, 1882, to March 25, 1883.

WALTER Q. GRESHAM, of Indiana.
From April 11, 1883, to September 24, 1885 (*see* Department of State).

FRANK HATTON, of Iowa.
From October 14, 1884, to March 6, 1885.

WILLIAM F. VILAS, of Wisconsin.
From March 7, 1885, to January 16, 1888.

DON M. DICKINSON, of Michigan.
From January 17, 1888, to March 5, 1889.

JOHN WANAMAKER, of Pennsylvania.
From March 6, 1889, to March 6, 1893.

WILSON S. BISSELL, of New York.
From March 7, 1893, to April 3, 1895.

WILLIAM L. WILSON, of West Virginia.
From April 4, 1895, to March 5, 1897.

JAMES A. GARY, of Maryland.
From March 6, 1897, to April 21, 1898.

CHARLES EMORY SMITH, of Pennsylvania.
From April 22, 1898, to January 14, 1902.

HENRY C. PAYNE, of Wisconsin.
From January 15, 1902, to October 1, 1904.

ROBERT J. WYNNE, of Pennsylvania.
From October 10, 1904, to March 6, 1905.

GEORGE B. CORTELYOU, of New York.
From March 6, 1905, to March 4, 1907 (*see* Department of the Treasury).

GEORGE VON L. MEYER, of Massachusetts.
From March 4, 1907, to March 6, 1909.

FRANK H. HITCHCOCK, of Massachusetts.
From March 5, 1909, to March 4, 1913.

ALBERT S. BURLESON, of Texas.
From March 5, 1913, to March 5, 1921.

WILL H. HAYS, of Indiana.
From March 5, 1921, to March 4, 1922.

HUBERT WORK, of Colorado.
From March 5, 1922, to March 4, 1923 (*see* Department of the Interior).

HARRY S. NEW, of Indiana.
From March 5, 1923.

Aaron V. Brown and Timothy O. Howe died in office.

Biographies of Postmasters General

Samuel Osgood

Samuel Osgood—Postmaster General, from September 26, 1789, to August 19, 1791. Born in Andover, Massachusetts, February 14, 1746. Son of Peter and Sarah (Johnson) Osgood. Educated at Harvard College. Married, January 4, 1775, Miss Martha Brandon; May 24, 1786, Mrs. Maria Franklin. Died in New York city, August 12, 1813.

1775—Captain Massachusetts Militia.
1775—Colonel and aide-de-camp.
1778—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1780—Member Massachusetts Senate.
1784—Member Continental Congress.
1785—First Commissioner of the Treasury.
1789—Postmaster General.
1801—Member New York Legislature.
1802—Naval Officer, New York.

Samuel Osgood, first Postmaster General under the constitutional form of government, was born at Andover, Massachusetts. He was the fifth in descent from John Osgood, of Andover, England, who migrated to America about 1630 and who gave the town of Andover, Massachusetts, its name as a reminder of his old home in England.

After receiving the necessary preliminary education Samuel was sent to Harvard College, graduating in 1780. After leaving college he studied theology, but his health failing prevented him from entering the ministry, and he turned his attention to merchandizing. Taking an active interest in public affairs he served several terms in the Massachusetts Legislature, acting on many of the important committees. He was an ardent patriot and espoused the cause of the colonies in their controversy with the king and Parliament. Before the actual breaking out of hostilities he enrolled himself in the militia and was made captain of a company. With his company he took part in the battles of Lexington and Concord in April, 1775. Shortly afterward he was appointed on the staff of General Ward with the rank of colonel. While holding his rank in the army he was elected to the Massachusetts Legislature, serving first in the House of Representatives and then in the Senate.

In 1784 he was sent as a delegate to the Continental Congress and the next year was appointed first commissioner of the treasury under the Confederation, and was holding that position at the adoption of the Constitution in 1787. As first commissioner of the treasury he proved very efficient in inducing the states to grant funds to Congress.

As first established under the Constitution the Postoffice Department was not classed as an executive department and the head of the department was not considered a member of the cabinet. In fact, he

was not admitted to a seat in the cabinet until during the administration of President Jackson. By an act approved September 22, 1789, it was provided that a Postmaster General should be appointed. The act was to continue in force only until the end of the next session of Congress.

President Washington's choice for Postmaster General was Mr. Osgood. He had met and known him during the continuance of the war and had great confidence in his executive ability. He was nominated to the Senate on September 25, 1789, was confirmed the next day and entered at once upon the discharge of his duties.

He organized the department, contracted for the carrying of the mails over certain prescribed routes and prepared rules for the government of the service. When the government was about to remove from New York to Philadelphia, Mr. Osgood decided to retire from the service and make his permanent residence in New York. He resigned on July 11, 1791, but served until August 19 of that year.

The postal affairs of the country were in a very crude state and Mr. Osgood did what he could to perfect an organization of the service so as to make it a benefit to the whole people, but Congress was very slow in making any provision for the extension or the expediting of the service.

After resigning his office Mr. Osgood engaged in commercial business in New York, becoming prominent in the affairs of the state. In 1801 he was elected a member of the state legislature and for a time served as supervisor of New York city. Having severed his political connections with the Federalists, he was appointed, in 1802, by President Jefferson, naval officer for New York, a position he held until his death in 1813.

JOSEPH HABERSHAM

JOSEPH HABERSHAM—Postmaster General from February 25, 1795, to November 2, 1801. Born at Savannah, Georgia, July 28, 1751. Son of James Habersham. Academic education. Died at Savannah, Georgia, November 17, 1815.

1795—Postmaster General.

Joseph Habersham, second Postmaster General of the United States, was a native of Georgia. His father came to America in 1738 with George Whitefield, the great evangelist, and settled at Savannah, where he soon became prominent. Joseph was an earnest patriot and became active in the cause of the colonies. In 1875 he was a member of the first patriotic committee of Georgia and was in close correspondence with the patriots in the other states. Together with a few associates in July, 1775, he seized the arsenal in Savannah, which contained a large quantity of ammunition and arms, using them for the patriot cause. Soon afterward he commanded a party which captured a British ship

with fifteen thousand pounds of powder. In January, 1776, he took prisoner the governor of the colony because he remained loyal to the cause of the king and Parliament.

He was made a major of artillery and assisted in the defense of Savannah, and when that city was finally captured by the British he removed, for a time, with his family to Virginia, remaining there until Savannah was once more in the hands of the patriots. When Samuel Osgood resigned the Postoffice Department in 1795 Mr. Habersham was nominated and confirmed to the vacant place. He remained at the head of the department to November, 1801, when he tendered his resignation to President Jefferson to become president of the Savannah branch of the United States Bank. As Postmaster General he was efficient, but could do little because of the policy of Congress making only temporary provisions for the service.

GIDEON GRANGER

GIDEON GRANGER—Postmaster General from November 28, 1801, to February 25, 1814. Born in Suffield, Connecticut, July 19, 1767. Son of Gideon and Tryphosa (Kent) Granger. Educated at Yale College. Married, June 14, 1790, Miss Mindwell Pease. Died in Canandaigua, New York, December 31, 1829.

1792—Member Connecticut Legislature.
1801—Postmaster General.
1821—Member New York Legislature.

For more than thirteen years Gideon Granger was head of the Postoffice Department, serving through the two administrations of President Jefferson, the first and part of the second administration of President Madison. In the main his administration of the department was characterized by great ability. He was a native of Connecticut, where his father was an influential citizen.

Receiving a good preparatory education young Gideon entered Yale College, graduating in 1787 at the age of twenty years with high honors. Leaving college he studied law, and on being admitted to the bar began the practice in his native town. He was active in politics, first as a Federalist, but later became a Republican, following the political fortunes of Mr. Jefferson. In 1792 he was elected to the Connecticut Legislature and was re-elected each year until 1801. During those years he was one of the leading figures in the legislature. He drafted, and secured the passage of the law establishing the school system of Connecticut, a subject in which he took great interest.

After entering upon the presidency Mr. Jefferson retained for a few months Joseph Habersham, of Georgia, who had been Postmaster General under Presidents Washington and Adams. When Mr. Habersham voluntarily resigned the office in November, 1801, President Jefferson appointed Mr. Granger to the vacant place. The appointment of Mr.

Granger was made during a recess of the Senate, but his nomination was promptly confirmed when submitted to the Senate. During his long service as head of the Postoffice Department, Mr. Granger introduced many reforms and largely extended the service.

His resignation of the office was finally brought about by his antagonizing President Madison. Among the most bitter of the opponents of President Madison in Congress was Senator Michael Lieb, of Pennsylvania. The senator let no opportunity pass unimproved to thwart the President or to antagonize the administration. In some of his speeches he was exceedingly bitter in his denunciations. There were doubts of the senator being able to secure a re-election on the expiration of his term, and he made an application to Postmaster General Granger for the appointment of postmaster at Philadelphia, the Postmaster General at that time having the appointing power of all postmasters.

For some months there had been a growing feeling of coolness between the President and his Postmaster General, and this was intensified when it became known the Postmaster General favored the appointment of Senator Lieb to the Philadelphia office. The President requested Mr. Granger to select some other person for the Philadelphia office, protesting against the place being given to the Pennsylvania senator. Mr. Granger refused to listen to his chief and despite the protests of the President appointed Mr. Lieb.

On learning of this open defiance of his wishes President Madison, without any notice to Mr. Granger, sent to the Senate the name of Return J. Meigs, Jr., as Postmaster General. On leaving the department Mr. Granger removed to New York, making his home at Canandaigua. From the very beginning of his residence in New York Mr. Granger took a leading part in the politics of the state, supporting the elaborate scheme of internal improvements advocated by De Witt Clinton.

RETURN JONATHAN MEIGS, JR.

RETURN J. MEIGS, JR.—Postmaster General from April 11, 1814, to June 30, 1823. Born in Middletown, Connecticut, November 17, 1764. Son of Return J. and Joanas (Winborn) Meigs. Educated at Yale College. Married Sophia Wright. Died at Marietta, Ohio, March 29, 1824.

1802—Chief Justice of the Ohio Supreme Court.
1805—Chief Justice of the Louisiana Supreme Court.
1807—United States Judge, Michigan Territory.
1808—United States Senator.
1810—Governor of Ohio.
1814—Postmaster General.

Return Jonathan Meigs, Postmaster General under two Presidents, was of a distinguished revolutionary family, his father having been a gallant soldier in the War for Independence. After receiving an excel-

lent preparatory education, the future Postmaster General entered Yale College, graduating at the age of twenty years. After graduating he turned his attention to the study of law.

In 1788, with his father, he removed from Connecticut to Marietta, Ohio, where he began the practice of his profession, rising rapidly in the esteem and confidence of the people. In 1802, shortly after Ohio became a state in the Union, Mr. Meigs was made chief justice of the Supreme Court of the state. In 1804 he was breveted a colonel in the army and sent to command in the St. Charles district, Louisiana, and in 1805 was made chief justice of the Louisiana Supreme Court. In 1807 President Jefferson sent him to the territory of Michigan as United States judge of the territory. He held this office but a few months when he returned to Ohio.

In 1807 Mr. Meigs was a candidate for governor of Ohio and was declared elected, but the election was contested on the ground that he had not been a continuous resident of the state for the four years required by the Constitution. The contest was decided against Mr. Meigs. In 1808 he was elected to the United States Senate to fill the unexpired term of Senator John Smith, who resigned his seat when a motion submitted to expel him for being connected with the schemes of Aaron Burr failed of adoption by only one vote. He served in the Senate only until 1810.

Mr. Meigs resigned from the Senate to again make the race for governor of Ohio. In this race he was successful and served as governor until he resigned in 1814 to become Postmaster General. During his services as governor Mr. Meigs was very efficient in raising and equipping Ohio's portion of the troops called out for the war with Great Britain.

His services as head of the Postoffice Department were characterized by energy and efficiency. He introduced many and important changes into the service.

JOHN MCLEAN

JOHN MCLEAN—Postmaster General from July 1, 1823, to March 9, 1829. Born in Morris county, New Jersey, March 11, 1785. Son of Fergus and Sophia (Blackford) McLean. Educated in the common schools. Married, in 1807, Miss Rebecca Edwards; in 1845, Mrs. Sarah Bella Gerard. Died in Cincinnati, Ohio, April 4, 1861.

1813—Member national House of Representatives.
1816—Judge of the Ohio Supreme Court.
1822—Commissioner of the General Land Office.
1823—Postmaster General.
1829—Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

John McLean was born on a New Jersey farm. His father first removed to Virginia, then to Kentucky, and lastly to Ohio, giving the son but little opportunity to secure any schooling. From the time he

was old enough to do so John assisted in the farm work, but kept his mind on securing an education. At the age of sixteen he had, for a short time, the advantage of studying under a private tutor.

Determining upon the law as his future vocation he went to Cincinnati and there obtained a position in the office of the clerk of the court. Utilizing his spare time in securing such legal knowledge as he could, he so far perfected himself as to be admitted to the bar in 1807 and began practicing at Lebanon, Ohio.

He was a Republican in politics, and as such was a strong supporter of President Madison in the war with Great Britain. In 1812 he was elected to Congress and served from March 4, 1813, until his resignation in 1816. His constituents were so well satisfied with him that at his second election he received the unanimous vote of the district.

In 1822 President Monroe appointed him commissioner of the general land office and the next year made him Postmaster General. He served as head of the Postoffice Department through the remainder of the administration of President Monroe and through that of President John Quincy Adams, and so admirable was his conduct of the office that Congress, by unanimous vote, increased his salary from four thousand to six thousand dollars. President Jackson desired to retain him in his administration and offered him his choice of either the War or the Navy Department, but he preferred to remain at the head of the Postoffice Department.

A vacancy soon occurring on the Supreme Bench President Jackson nominated Mr. McLean, he having signified his desire for the position. Lawyers have ever regarded the opinions delivered by Justice McLean while on the Supreme Bench as being remarkably strong. He had an ambition for the presidency, and severing his connection with the Democratic party on account of its attitude on the slavery question, he sought the nomination of the newly formed Republican party in 1856, receiving one hundred and ninety-six votes in the convention. He was again before the Republican Convention in 1860.

WILLIAM TAYLOR BARRY

WILLIAM TAYLOR BARRY—Postmaster General from March 9, 1829, to April 30, 1835. Born in Lunenburg county, Virginia, February 15, 1784. Educated at William and Mary College. Died in Liverpool, England, August 30, 1835.

1808—Member Kentucky Legislature.
1810—Member national House of Representatives.
1813—United States Senator.
1816—Judge of the Supreme Court of Kentucky.
1825—Chief Justice of Kentucky.
1829—Postmaster General.
1835—Minister to Spain.

William T. Barry was the first Postmaster General to be given a seat in the cabinet. He was one of the noted lawyers in the early days of Kentucky. Born in Virginia he was taken when but a lad by his parents to Kentucky. He received a fair education in the schools of Kentucky and then was sent to William and Mary College in Virginia, graduating in 1803. Studying law he was admitted to the bar and began the practice at Lexington, Kentucky. He was regarded by his colleagues at the bar as being specially able and eloquent before a jury. Following the custom of attorneys in those times he took an active part in politics and served several terms in the legislature of the state. In 1810 he was prominent enough to be elected to Congress, although he was but twenty-six years of age. He was elected to fill a vacancy and served but three months.

During a part of the time of the War of 1812 he served on the staff of Governor Shelby and took part in the battle of the Thames. In 1814 he was sent to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy and served until 1816, when he resigned to become judge of the Kentucky Supreme Court. He was one of the leaders of what is politically known in Kentucky as the "Relief" party. He served for a time as lieutenant governor and also as secretary of the commonwealth, and was then appointed chief justice of the state. He was more eminent as a lawyer than as a judge.

He was a Democrat in politics and became an enthusiastic follower of General Jackson, supporting him for the presidency as against Henry Clay of his own state. When General Jackson became President he made Mr. Barry Postmaster General, and because of his well-known skill as a politician made the postmaster generalship a cabinet office.

Under Postmaster General Barry the department became for the first time a great political machine. His administration of the department was characterized by many scandals and he was frequently the subject of violent attacks in Congress both by party friends and enemies. Among his most vigorous assailants was Representative William Cost Johnson, of Maryland. The severe denunciations of Mr. Johnson called out a challenge from a son of the Postmaster General, but the interference of friends prevented a hostile meeting. The attacks became so frequent that in 1835 Mr. Barry tendered his resignation. President Jackson appointed him minister to Spain, but he never reached his post of duty, dying at Liverpool, England, on his way to Madrid.

AMOS KENDALL

AMOS KENDALL—Postmaster General from May 1, 1835, to May 25, 1840. Born at Dunstable, Massachusetts, August 16, 1789. Son of Zebedee Kendall. Educated at Dartmouth College. Married, in 1818, Mary Bullard Woolfolk; January 5, 1826, Miss Jane Kyle. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, November 12, 1869.

1829—Auditor of Treasury Department.
1835—Postmaster General.

Amos Kendall, one of the greatest of American politicians and for five years head of the Postoffice Department, was a descendant of one of the early settlers of New England, the first American ancestor settling in Massachusetts in 1640. Zebedee Kendall, the father of Amos, was a farmer, his farm lying partly in Massachusetts and partly in New Hampshire. Both the parents of Amos were zealous church people and trained their children in the most rigid manner.

Amos obtained his early education in the common schools of Massachusetts and New Hampshire. At school he excelled in almost all the branches and devoted all his spare time from the work of the farm to reading, storing his mind with useful knowledge. He earned the money to defray his expenses at Dartmouth College by teaching school at a salary of thirteen dollars a month. He graduated from Dartmouth in 1811 with the honors of his class and at once began the study of law.

Before he was ready for admission to the bar he determined to remove to the West. Visiting Washington before selecting his future location, he was induced to go to Kentucky, where he became a tutor in the family of Henry Clay. In 1815 he was admitted to the bar, and leaving his employment as tutor located at Georgetown, Kentucky. He was already taking an active interest in political matters, and not succeeding at the bar as he had expected he became an editor. His newspaper venture was not a financial success, but it gave Mr. Kendall an opportunity to establish a reputation as being one of the ablest political writers of the state. Later he became editor of the leading paper in Frankfort, and was thus brought into connection with the principal men of the state and was soon one of the trusted leaders of the newly formed Democratic party. He developed great aptitude as a party organizer and it was largely through his management the Democratic party was built up in the home state of Henry Clay, the great Whig leader. Mr. Kendall was one of the first editors to strongly oppose the United States Bank and this brought him the friendship of General Jackson.

His political writings and his activity as an organizer brought him prominently to the notice of General Jackson, who was then making his successful race for the presidency, the General forming a high opinion of his talents in both directions, an opinion he ever afterward retained. When the General was about to proceed to Washington to be inaugurated President he sent an invitation to Mr. Kendall to visit the capital, and a few days after the inauguration gave him an appointment as fourth auditor of the Treasury Department at a salary of three thousand dollars. To Mr. Kendall this was exceedingly fortunate, for he had a large family and was heavily in debt. To him a salary of three thousand dollars was a fortune.

President Woodrow Wilson thus epitomizes the character and talents of Mr. Kendall, in his "History of the American People":

> Amos Kendall was a master of the art political not in action but on paper. He had gifts as a writer which could be turned to account in the composition of the most serious state papers. He caught the impressive tone of public business and mastered its calm way of reasoning as readily as he caught the tones of partisan controversy and spent his force in its bitter energy. He could frame a significant innuendo or prepare an editorial for the party press that bit as deep as anything that Tom Paine or William Cobbett could have written. He seemed a statesman or a mere partisan by turns; it was difficult to tell which he was either by nature or by choice. He was perhaps each in turn; but nothing out of the closet.

From the time of his entering the Treasury Department to the end of the Jackson administration Mr. Kendall was the most intimate and trusted friend and adviser of the President, wielding with him an influence that was greater than that of either Mr. Blair or Mr. Van Buren. From the first he was a member of the famous "Kitchen Cabinet." He was called the "thinker, planner and doer" of the administration.

When the President was considering the question of ordering the removal of the government deposits to the state banks, it was said the state banks would not accept the deposits. The President sent Mr. Kendall on a confidential mission to several of the large cities to interview the bankers and permitted him to draw up his own instructions. The report he made was of such a satisfactory character that the order of removal was at once made, the administration selecting the banks suggested by Mr. Kendall.

In conjunction with Mr. Blair, Mr. Kendall edited the *Globe*, the new administration paper established in Washington. He did not neglect his duties as auditor, but introduced a number of reforms in the methods of handling the business of the bureau and in passing upon the accounts of the government, demonstrating a keen talent for business.

The Postoffice Department was in a condition of great confusion and heavily in debt. Its management was the subject of congressional investigation, great public scandals resulting, most of them having to do with the letting of contracts for carrying the mails. Some of the contractors had been paid hundreds of thousands of dollars in advance of services. President Jackson determined upon making a change, although Postmaster General Barry was one of his intimate friends and a member of the "Kitchen Cabinet," so he tendered the place to Mr. Kendall.

The administration of Postmaster Kendall was one long fight against the greed of contractors and against the incompetence and corruption of the employees of the department. He refused to pay the contractors until the service rendered wiped out the advances made to them. In some instances they were influential enough to get through Congress the payment of claims the Postmaster General had declared to be

fraudulent. He drafted an act that was passed by Congress in 1835 which materially changed the method of conducting business in the department. He served until his failing health caused him to resign in 1840.

Soon after he left the service suit was entered against him by some of the contractors, claiming large damages, and a judgment obtained, which he refused to pay, or was unable to pay. He was arrested for debt and confined to the limits of the District of Columbia for a year. Later Congress paid the judgment and made him an allowance for counsel fees and other expenses.

Mr. Kendall remained in Washington and for two or three years edited and published a paper known as *Kendall's Expositor*. In 1845 he became connected with Professor Morse, who was endeavoring to put into commercial operation his newly discovered electric telegraph. Through this connection Mr. Kendall accumulated a large fortune, investing much of his money in Washington real estate.

When the Civil War came he was a staunch adherent of the Union, and at the request of the administration of President Lincoln wrote and published a series of articles favoring a most vigorous prosecution of the war for the restoration of the Union. He gave to the government his fine residence and the grounds around it for the use of the troops. He was a man of large charity, founded the Columbia Institution for the Education of Deaf Mutes and gave sixty thousand dollars to the erection of Calvary Baptist Church in Washington.

JOHN MILTON NILES

JOHN MILTON NILES—Postmaster General from May 26, 1840, to March 3, 1841. Born in Windsor, Connecticut, August 20, 1787. Son of Moses and Naomi (Marshall) Niles. Educated in the common schools. Married, June 27, 1824, Mrs. Sarah (Robertson) Howe; November 26, 1831, Jane H. Pratt. Died in Hartford, Connecticut, May 31, 1856.

1826—Member Connecticut Legislature.
1835—United States Senator.
1840—Postmaster General.
1843—United States Senator.

Receiving a preparatory education in the common schools of Hartford, young Niles declined to enter college, preferring a business life. Later, however, he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1817. He soon became interested in politics and established the Hartford *Times*, the first paper in Connecticut to declare for General Jackson for President. The paper brought him prominently before the public and from 1821 to 1826 he was judge of the county court and in the latter year was elected to the state legislature. When General Jackson

became President he appointed Mr. Niles postmaster of Hartford. This appointment was antagonized by Gideon Welles, who was editor of the *Times* and claimed the appointment should have come to him. Mr. Niles was removed and Mr. Welles given the office. This angered Mr. Niles and he became a Whig.

As a Whig he was appointed in 1835 to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy, serving until March 3, 1839. While in the Senate he became reconciled with President Jackson and returned to the Democratic party. When Amos Kendall resigned the Postoffice Department President Van Buren gave the vacant place to Mr. Niles. He served as a member of the cabinet but a few months, retiring with the administration of President Van Buren. In 1843 he was again sent to the Senate, serving a full term. In 1851 Mr. Niles traveled extensively in Europe. On his return to the United States he went out of politics and devoted himself to agricultural and horticultural pursuits, accumulating a large fortune. By his will he left seventy thousand dollars to the poor of Hartford.

FRANCIS GRANGER

FRANCIS GRANGER—Postmaster General from March 8, 1841, to September 13, 1841. Born at Suffield, Connecticut, December 1, 1792. Son of Gideon and Mindwell (Pease) Granger. Educated at Yale College. Married, in 1817, Miss Cornelia Van Rensselaer. Died at Canandaigua, New York, August 28, 1868.

1826—Member New York Legislature.
1830—Member New York Legislature.
1835—Member national House of Representatives.
1839—Member national House of Representatives.
1841—Postmaster General.
1841—Member national House of Representatives.

Gideon Granger, father of Francis, served for thirteen years as Postmaster General, the same office his son filled for six months in the administrations of Presidents William Henry Harrison and John Tyler. The elder Granger, after leaving the department during the administration of President Madison, removed from Connecticut to Canandaigua, New York, and became one of the leading politicians of that state.

Francis graduated from Yale College in 1811. Like his father he took an active interest in politics. He served one term in the New York Legislature and was then successively a candidate for lieutenant governor and governor of the state, being defeated in each instance. In 1832 he was the Whig candidate for Vice President on the ticket with General Harrison and again met with defeat. He served three terms in Congress at different times.

Appointed Postmaster General by President William Henry Harrison, he resigned with the other members of the cabinet when President Tyler broke with the Whig party. In political history Mr. Granger is better known as the leader of a political faction in New York, styled the "Silver Greys" more from the flowing white locks of Mr. Granger than from any other cause. He did not serve long enough in the Post-office Department to make any record.

CHARLES ANDERSON WICKLIFFE

CHARLES A. WICKLIFFE—Postmaster General from October 13, 1841, to March 6, 1845. Born near Springfield, Kentucky, June 8, 1788. Son of Charles and Lydia (Hardin) Wickliffe. Educated in private schools. Married, in 1813, Miss Margaret Crippa. Died in Howard county, Maryland, October 31, 1869.

1812—Member Kentucky Legislature.
1820—Member Kentucky Legislature.
1823—Member national House of Representatives.
1833—Member Kentucky Legislature.
1834—Speaker Kentucky House of Representatives.
1836—Lieutenant Governor of Kentucky.
1839—Governor of Kentucky.
1841—Postmaster General.
1845—Secret Envoy to Texas.
1849—Member Kentucky Constitutional Convention.
1861—Delegate to Peace Congress.
1861—Member national House of Representatives.

Charles A. Wickliffe was born in a log cabin six miles from Springfield, Kentucky. His parents were Virginians who had removed to Kentucky some two years prior to the birth of their distinguished son. His early educational opportunities were very scant, but he had the advantage when about sixteen years of age of the instruction of two eminent scholars for a couple of years. He then studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1809. He was rapidly making headway in his profession when the War of 1812 came, and he volunteered, receiving an appointment as aide to General Samuel Caldwell. At the battle of the Thames he greatly distinguished himself.

In 1812 and 1813 he was a member of the Kentucky Legislature, and when the news of the fatal battle of the River Raisin was received he closed his office and prepared for the field. He served throughout the war in the West. Returning at the conclusion of the war he again applied himself to the practice of his profession, and in 1823 was elected a representative in Congress, serving consecutively for ten years. He was a member of the House during the contest between John Quincy Adams and General Jackson for the presidency, and in opposition to the other members of the Kentucky delegation voted for General Jackson. He was one of the managers on the part of the House in the impeach-

ment proceedings against Judge Peck and made the principal argument for the prosecution.

He was appointed Postmaster General by President Tyler. While serving in that position he narrowly escaped assassination at the hands of a lunatic, who stabbed him twice in the breast, fortunately not reaching a vital spot. His administration of the Postoffice Department was at a time when there was constant friction between the President and Congress and he was not able to bring about any great changes for bettering the service.

President Polk sent him on a secret mission to Texas connected with the proposed annexation of that republic to the United States. Mr. Wickliffe was regarded as one of the ablest members of the Kentucky bar and had an extensive and lucrative practice. During the Civil War he met with an accident that compelled him to use crutches during the remainder of his life. Several years before his death he became totally blind.

CAVE JOHNSON

CAVE JOHNSON—Postmaster General from March 7, 1845, to March 5, 1849. Born in Robertson county, Tennessee, January 11, 1793. Educated at Columbia College. Died at Clarksville, Tennessee, November 23, 1866.

1820—Judge of Tennessee Court.
1829—Member national House of Representatives.
1845—Postmaster General.

Cave Johnson early became prominent in his native state, becoming judge of one of the state courts at the age of twenty-seven. In 1829 he was sent to Congress, serving continuously until 1837, when he was defeated for re-election, but two years later he was again returned to the House, serving until he resigned in 1845 to accept a seat in the cabinet of President Polk.

His service as Postmaster General was successful in the highest degree. As head of the department he had a unique experience which proved him to be an officer of expedients, with the courage to take responsibilities when an occasion should demand. Prior to his administration the mails between this country and England had been carried in British vessels. American shipbuilders had lately constructed some sailing vessels superior in speed to any of those of Great Britain—in fact being able to cross the Atlantic in less time than British steamers required.

Postmaster General Johnson issued an order that all European mails should, in the future, be despatched in American vessels. This angered the postal authorities of Great Britain, and to compel the United States to return to the old method they issued an order assessing an extra postage of twenty-five cents on each letter brought to England in American vessels.

As the regular postage rate at the time was twenty-five cents on each half ounce or fraction thereof, this addition was very oppressive. Postmaster General Johnson did not propose to submit passively to this arbitrary action, or to be driven from the position he had taken of favoring vessels flying the flag of the United States, and he promptly issued an order, without the sanction of Congress, assessing a like penalty on all letters brought to America in other than American bottoms.

The British minister protested, and in a conversation Postmaster General Johnson intimated that if Great Britain continued its line of action he would issue an order refusing to receive at any postoffice in this country any mail brought by a British vessel. This threat, which followed the prompt retaliatory action of the Postmaster General, soon brought about a new postal convention between the two countries.

JACOB COLLAMER

JACOB COLLAMER—Postmaster General from March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850. Born at Troy, New York, January 8, 1792. Son of Samuel and Elizabeth (Van Ormun) Collamer. Educated at the University of Vermont. Died at Woodstock, Vermont, July 9, 1866.

1821—Member Vermont Legislature.
1827—Member Vermont Legislature.
1833—Associate Justice of the Vermont Supreme Court.
1843—Member national House of Representatives.
1849—Postmaster General.
1850—Associate Justice of the Vermont Supreme Court.
1855—United States Senator.

While Jacob was a small boy his parents removed from New York to the state of Vermont. There Jacob grew to manhood, working on a farm and attending school as he had opportunity. By working on a farm he managed to accumulate enough money to pay his expenses in college by exercising rigid economy. This he was prepared to do, as he was bent on securing a collegiate education. When fitted for college he entered the University of Vermont and graduated in 1810.

He at once entered upon the study of law at St. Albans and was admitted to the bar in 1813. In the meantime he had seen some service as a lieutenant of artillery in the state militia during the War of 1812. For twenty years after his admission to the bar he devoted himself diligently to the practice of his profession with two short interludes as a member of the Vermont Legislature. He rose to the head of the bar of the state and was counted among the ablest lawyers of New England.

In 1833 he was elected associate justice of the Supreme Court of Vermont and served until 1843, when he was elected a representative in Congress. He remained in Congress until he was appointed Postmaster General by President Taylor. In that position he did much to simplify the laws and regulations of the department. When President Fillmore reorganized his cabinet in 1850, Mr. Collamer returned to Vermont

and was almost immediately re-elected to his old place on the Supreme Bench of the state. In 1855 he became a member of the United States Senate, serving until his death in 1865. During nearly the whole of his senatorial career he was chairman of the Senate Committee on Post-offices and Post Roads.

NATHAN KELSEY HALL

NATHAN K. HALL—Postmaster General from July 23, 1850, to September 13, 1852. Born in Marcellus, New York, March 10, 1810. Son of Ira and Kate (Ross) Hall. Educated in the common schools. Married, November 10, 1832, Miss Emily Payne. Died in Buffalo, New York, March 2, 1874.

1841—Member New York Legislature.
1847—Member national House of Representatives.
1850—Postmaster General.
1852—United States Judge, Northern District of New York.

After receiving a common school education Mr. Hall began his active life as an apprentice to a shoemaker. In that position he attracted the attention of Millard Fillmore, afterward President of the United States, who took him into his office as a law student. He was admitted to the bar in 1832. Mr. Fillmore having removed to Buffalo Mr. Hall followed him to that city and there became his law partner.

He served one term in Congress as a Whig, and when President Fillmore reorganized his cabinet in 1850 he made Mr. Hall Postmaster General. He served in that position two years and was appointed judge of the Northern New York District.

SAMUEL DICKINSON HUBBARD

SAMUEL D. HUBBARD—Postmaster General from September 14, 1852, to March 7, 1853. Born in Middletown, Connecticut, August 10, 1799. Son of Elijah and Abigail (Dickinson) Hubbard. Educated at Yale College. Died in Middletown, Connecticut, October 8, 1855.

1845—Member national House of Representatives.
1852—Postmaster General.

Mr. Hubbard received a classical education, graduating from Yale College in 1819. He studied law, but suddenly becoming possessed of large wealth by inheritance, he abandoned the idea of becoming a lawyer and devoted himself to manufacturing. He became prominent in his neighborhood and was elected to Congress, serving two terms. These four years in Congress and a little less than six months as Postmaster General were all of his public life. In Congress and as Postmaster General he was more distinguished on account of his business knowledge than from any other cause. Leaving the cabinet at the close of the administration of President Fillmore, Mr. Hubbard returned to Vermont and devoted himself to educational and charitable objects.

JAMES CAMPBELL

JAMES CAMPBELL—Postmaster General from March 8, 1853, to March 6, 1857. Born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, September 1, 1812. Son of Anthony and Catharine (Doran) Campbell. Educated at Stockdale Academy. Married Miss Emilie S. Chaperon. Died in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, January 23, 1893.

1841—Judge of Pennsylvania Court of Common Pleas.
1851—Attorney General of Pennsylvania.
1853—Postmaster General.

Studying law after leaving the academy Mr. Campbell was admitted to the bar in 1834 and rose to be counted one of the leading attorneys of Pennsylvania, being connected with many of the important cases before the Supreme Court of the United States, among them being the famous case of Dred Scott. For ten years he held the position of judge of the State Court of Common Pleas and for two years was the attorney general of the commonwealth.

As Postmaster General Mr. Campbell brought about a number of improvements in the service, reduced the postage rates, introduced the registry system, stamped envelopes and separated postage stamps. His administration was clean and able throughout. Leaving the cabinet Mr. Campbell returned to the practice of his profession in Philadelphia.

AARON VENABLE BROWN

AARON V. BROWN—Postmaster General from March 7, 1857, to March 8, 1859. Born in Brunswick county, Virginia, August 15, 1795. Son of Aaron and Elizabeth (Melton) Brown. Educated at the University of North Carolina. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, March 8, 1859.

1821—Member Tennessee Senate.
1839—Member national House of Representatives.
1845—Governor of Tennessee.
1857—Postmaster General.

Graduating from the University of North Carolina as valedictorian of his class, at the age of nineteen years, Aaron V. Brown removed to Tennessee, where he made his future home. His father had been a distinguished preacher of the Methodist Episcopal Church and a close and intimate friend of Mr. Jefferson. He trained his son in the Jeffersonian political school. Aaron studied law after he removed to Tennessee and was admitted to the bar in 1817. For several years he was the law partner of James K. Polk, afterward President of the United States.

He took an active interest in the politics of the state and became known as the "platform writer" of his party. He served six sessions as member of the State Senate, two terms as a representative in Congress

and one term as governor of the state. In every position he was always consistently a Democrat, holding to the tenets of that party.

As Postmaster General he displayed great administrative ability in the conduct of the affairs of the department, improving the service in many directions. Among the many improvements introduced was the opening up of new mail lines to the Pacific coast and greatly expediting the transcontinental service. His death, while holding the position as head of the Postoffice Department, was regarded as a national calamity.

JOSEPH HOLT

JOSEPH HOLT—Postmaster General from March 14, 1859, to December 31, 1860; Secretary of War from January 1, 1861, to March 10, 1861. Born in Breckinridge county, Kentucky, January 6, 1807. Son of John W. and Eleanor K. (Stephens) Holt. Educated at Center College, Danville, Kentucky. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, August 1, 1894.

1857—Commissioner of Patents.
1859—Postmaster General.
1861—Secretary of War.
1862—Judge Advocate General of the Army.

After completing his collegiate course, which he did in 1823, Mr. Holt studied law and began the practice of the profession in Louisville, Kentucky. He was active in politics, and was soon regarded as one of the local leaders of the Democratic party. He came into national fame in the convention of 1835 which nominated Martin Van Buren for President and Richard M. Johnson for Vice President. Mr. Holt was one of the delegates to the convention from Kentucky. Certain grave charges had been made against the character of Mr. Johnson and Mr. Holt made a most eloquent and complete defense of the Kentucky candidate. This speech so far captured the convention as to secure the nomination for Mr. Johnson.

Mr. Holt early became prominent in his profession and was employed in a large number of important cases. For a time he lived in Mississippi. In 1842 he abandoned his profession temporarily on account of failing health and made an extended visit to Europe. In 1857 he removed to Washington, District of Columbia, and was appointed commissioner of patents. He was holding this position when the death of Postmaster General Brown occurred and President Buchanan called Mr. Holt into his cabinet as head of the Postoffice Department.

It was just at the time President Buchanan's cabinet was being torn by dissensions over the question of the power of the administration in dealing with the matter of secession. As Postmaster General he insisted that every effort should be put forth to make the department self-sustaining and he enforced the most rigid economy. When Mr. Buchanan's cabinet was finally broken up Mr. Holt was transferred

from the Postoffice to the War Department. He was an uncompromising Unionist, insisting the government had the power to put down secession and enforce the laws. As Secretary of War he demanded the reinforcements of the Southern forts, and in connection with General Scott took ample precautions against any hostile demonstrations during the inauguration of President Lincoln. In a report to Congress he gave an account of a plot that had been made to seize the capital.

Mr. Holt wrote several articles in opposition to secession that were printed and circulated by the government. President Lincoln employed him on several important and confidential missions in connection with the army and in 1862 made him judge advocate general of the army. In 1864, when the Bureau of Military Justice was created, Mr. Holt was placed at its head with the rank of brigadier general. While judge advocate general he gave an elaborate written opinion to Secretary Stanton sustaining the constitutionality of the emancipation proclamation. He conducted the trial of General Fitz John Porter for disobedience of orders, and that of the assassins of President Lincoln.

HORATIO KING

HORATIO KING—Postmaster General from February 12, 1861, to March 9, 1861. Born in Oxford county, Maine, June 21, 1811. Son of Samuel and Sarah (Hall) King. Educated in the common schools. Married, May 25, 1835, Ann Collins; February 6, 1875, Isabella G. Osborne. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, May 20, 1897.

1839—Subordinate Clerk in Postoffice Department.
1854—First Assistant Postmaster General.
1861—Postmaster General.

Mr. King was the first to climb from a subordinate position to the head of one of the administrative departments by sheer efficiency and capability. In early life he was a printer and editor, but in 1839 was given a subordinate clerkship in the Postoffice Department at Washington. He passed from one grade to another in the department until he became the head of the Bureau of Foreign Mails. In that position he originated and perfected a number of important postal arrangements with foreign countries. He was First Assistant Postmaster General when the last rearrangement of the cabinet of President Buchanan was made, and he was placed at the head of the department in place of Mr. Holt, who had been transferred to the War Department. He had then been serving in the department for more than twenty years. Mr. King was the first member of the administration to officially declare against the right of secession. In reply to a resolution of Congress he denied the right of a state to secede from the Union.

After leaving the department Mr. King remained in Washington, District of Columbia.

MONTGOMERY BLAIR

MONTGOMERY BLAIR—Postmaster General from March 9, 1861, to September 30, 1864. Born in Franklin county, Kentucky, May 10, 1813. Son of Frank P. Blair. Educated at West Point Academy. Died at Silver Springs, Maryland, July 27, 1883.

1840—United States Attorney for Missouri.
1843—Judge of the Common Pleas Court of Missouri.
1855—Solicitor of the Court of Claims.
1861—Postmaster General.

The Blair family was one long distinguished in American politics. Frank P., father of Montgomery, was a distinguished and influential political writer and manager in Kentucky at the time General Jackson was elected President. The President, feeling the need of a personal organ at the seat of government, induced Mr. Blair to become its editor. He became a member of the famous "Kitchen Cabinet" and until the close of the administration of Mr. Jackson exercised great influence with the President.

Montgomery was appointed a cadet at West Point and after graduating served a short time in the army. Leaving the army he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1839, selecting St. Louis, Missouri, as his place of residence. Although he had been born in a slave state and lived under the influence of slavery, Mr. Blair was strongly opposed to that institution. In 1852 he removed from St. Louis to Maryland, making his home on a magnificent estate he had inherited from his father. He continued to practice law and appeared in a number of noted cases before the United States Supreme Court, among them being that of the slave Dred Scott.

He was a Democrat in politics, but became a Republican on the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. As a member of President Lincoln's cabinet he steadfastly and strongly urged the most vigorous measures to reinforce and strengthen the Southern forts. As Postmaster General he made many and radical changes in the department, introducing money orders, free delivery in cities and the distribution of mails in postal cars. He issued an order forbidding the transportation in the mails of disloyal newspapers, an order that created the most intense excitement at the time.

He was a man of very irrascible temper and frequently caused trouble in the cabinet of the President. These outbreaks finally became so frequent that the President was forced to request his resignation. After leaving the cabinet Mr. Blair continued to reside on his estate near Washington. He returned to the Democratic party, supporting Horatio Seymour for the presidency in 1868.

WILLIAM DENNISON

WILLIAM DENNISON—Postmaster General from October 1, 1864, to July 16, 1866. Born in Cincinnati, Ohio, November 23, 1815. Son of William Dennison. Educated at Miami University. Died at Columbus, Ohio, June 15, 1882.

1848—Member Ohio Legislature.
1860—Governor of Ohio.
1864—Postmaster General.

Mr. Dennison graduated from Miami University in 1835 and at once began the study of law. He was admitted to the bar in 1840. In politics he was originally a Whig, and as a Whig was elected to the Ohio Legislature, but he was strongly opposed to slavery.

He was a member of the convention held in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, in 1854, which culminated in the organization of the Republican party. Mr. Dennison at once became one of the leaders of the new party in Ohio. In 1860 he was nominated by the Republicans for governor of Ohio and was elected by a large plurality. As governor he won great distinction for his energy in raising and equipping troops for the Union Army and he was held in high esteem by President Lincoln.

His administration of the Postoffice Department was characterized by frugality and energy, especially in regard to the mails destined for soldiers in the service. In 1866, when President Johnson differed with Congress on the question of reconstruction, Postmaster General Dennison resigned, returning to Columbus, Ohio.

ALEXANDER WILLIAM RANDALL

ALEXANDER W. RANDALL—Postmaster General from July 25, 1866, to March 4, 1869. Born at Ames, Montgomery county, New York, October 31, 1819. Son of Phineas Randall. Died in Elmira, New York, July 25, 1872.

1847—Member Wisconsin Constitutional Convention.
1855—Member Wisconsin Legislature.
1857—Governor of Wisconsin.
1861—Minister to Italy.
1866—First Assistant Postmaster General.
1866—Postmaster General.

Mr. Randall removed from New York to Wisconsin and was admitted to the bar in 1840. He made his home at Waukeshaw and there quickly rose to prominence in his profession and in politics. In 1857 he was elected, as a Republican, governor of the state, and two years later was re-elected by a largely increased vote. In 1861 President Lincoln appointed him minister to Italy. When the break came between President Johnson and the Republican party over the question of reconstruction in the South Mr. Randall took the side of the President,

and in 1866 was made First Assistant Postmaster General. He served in that position but a few months when he was placed at the head of the department. He retired from public life at the end of the administration of President Johnson.

JOHN ANGELL JAMES CRESWELL

JOHN A. J. CRESWELL—Postmaster General from March 6, 1869, to July 6, 1874. Born at Port Deposit, Maryland, November 18, 1828. Educated at Dickinson College. Died at Elkton, Maryland, December 23, 1891.

1861—Member Maryland Legislature.
1862—Adjutant General of Maryland.
1863—Member national House of Representatives.
1865—United States Senator.
1869—Postmaster General.
1874—Member Alabama Claims Commission.

Mr. Creswell graduated from Dickinson College in 1848 with the highest honors of his class. He was admitted to the bar in 1850 and almost immediately took a high rank among the lawyers of Maryland. In politics he first acted with the Whigs, but on the dissolution of that party he united with the Democrats.

Mr. Creswell was a strong Union man in sentiment and opposed to secession. In 1860 he co-operated with the Republicans. While a member of the House of Representatives he made a reputation as an orator by a speech he delivered advocating the abolition of slavery. He was one of the first in the House to advocate absolute emancipation.

As Postmaster General he introduced a number of reforms in the administration of the department and added greatly to its efficiency. He was appointed by President Grant a member of the Alabama Claims Commission. This was his last public service.

MARSHALL JEWELL

MARSHALL JEWELL—Postmaster General from September 1, 1874, to July 12, 1876. Born in Winchester, New Hampshire, October 20, 1825. Son of Pliny Jewell. Educated in the common schools. Died at Hartford, Connecticut, February 10, 1883.

1869—Governor of Connecticut.
1873—Minister to Russia.
1874—Postmaster General.

The father of Mr. Jewell was largely interested in the leather and tanning business, and the son, on leaving school, learned the tanning trade. Later he became a partner of his father in the business, and under his energetic management it was rapidly extended, Marshall taking more direct management of that part of the business located in Connecticut.

Although extensively engaged in business, Mr. Jewell took great interest in political matters and was elected governor of Connecticut, giving the state a vigorous, business-like administration. In 1873 he was appointed minister to Russia and while there discovered the secret process of tanning Russian leather. On his return to the United States he introduced the process in his own tanneries and through it was able to accumulate a large fortune.

He was made Postmaster General in 1874, and introduced thorough business methods into the department. He suddenly resigned. Neither Mr. Jewell nor President Grant ever divulged the cause of his so suddenly leaving the department.

JAMES NOBLE TYNER

JAMES N. TYNER—Postmaster General from July 13, 1876, to March 12, 1877. Born in Brookville, Indiana, January 17, 1826. Educated at Brookville Academy. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, December 5, 1904.

1869—Member national House of Representatives.
1875—Second Assistant Postmaster General.
1876—Postmaster General.
1877—First Assistant Postmaster General.
1889—Assistant Attorney General for Postoffice Department.
1897—Assistant Attorney General for Postoffice Department.

After completing his academic course Mr. Tyner entered upon commercial business, which he followed for several years at Brookville, studying law in his leisure time. In 1857 he was admitted to the bar and began the practice of his profession at Peru, Indiana. In 1864 he was made a special agent of the Postoffice Department in connection with the service to the various armies in the field. He had taken an active interest in politics as a Republican and in 1860 was an elector on the Lincoln ticket.

In 1869 he was elected a representative in Congress, vice Daniel D. Pratt, who had been chosen United States senator. He served three terms. During the most of his congressional service he was chairman of the House Committee on Postoffices and Post Roads and was regarded the best informed man in the country on those subjects. He voted for what became known as the "Salary Grab" and was defeated for renomination in 1874.

President Grant appointed him as Second Assistant Postmaster General in 1875, and on the sudden resignation of Postmaster General Jewell Mr. Tyner was made head of the department. President Hayes appointed David M. Key as Postmaster General, but on account of his great knowledge of the department Mr. Tyner was requested to accept the position of First Assistant. In 1869 President Harrison appointed Mr. Tyner Assistant Attorney General of the Postoffice Department

and President McKinley gave him the same position. In 1903, through a relative, the name of Mr. Tyner was brought into the scandal connected with the letting of contracts for cancelling machines and other supplies for the department. Those who knew him best acquitted him of having any knowledge of the frauds.

DAVID MCKENDREE KEY

DAVID M. KEY—Postmaster General from March 13, 1877, to August 24, 1880. Born in Greene county, Tennessee, January 27, 1824. Academic education. Died in Chattanooga, Tennessee, February 3, 1900.

1870—Member Tennessee Constitutional Convention.
1870—Postmaster General.
1875—United States Senator.
1880—United States Judge, Middle and Eastern Districts, Tennessee.

Mr. Key studied law and practiced in Kingston; removed in 1853 to Chattanooga. Mr. Key was active in politics and was regarded as one of the leaders of the Democratic party in Tennessee. Originally he opposed secession, but when Tennessee withdrew from the Union he ceased his opposition to the movement and volunteered in the Confederate Army.

After the war he continued to act with the Democratic party, and after having been defeated as a candidate for Congress was appointed United States senator to fill the vacancy occasioned by the death of Senator Andrew Johnson. He served from August 18, 1875, to January 19, 1877. Although Mr. Key was a pronounced Democrat President Hayes invited him to a seat in his cabinet as Postmaster General and later appointed him judge of the United States Court in Tennessee. His administration of the Postoffice Department was not successful, too much latitude being allowed his subordinates.

HORACE MAYNARD

HORACE MAYNARD—Postmaster General from August 25, 1880, to March 7, 1881. Born in Westboro, Massachusetts, August 30, 1814. Son of Ephraim and Diana (Cogswell) Maynard. Educated at Amherst College. Married, August 30, 1840, Laura Ann Washburn. Died at Knoxville, Tennessee, May 3, 1889.

1857—Member national House of Representatives.
1863—Attorney General of Tennessee.
1865—Member national House of Representatives.
1879—Minister to Turkey.
1880—Postmaster General.

Mr. Maynard graduated from Amherst College in 1838 as valedictorian of his class. In 1839 he became principal of the Hampden-Sydney

Academy at Knoxville, Tennessee, and later a professor in the University of East Tennessee. While engaged in teaching he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1844. For some years he devoted himself to the practice of his profession at Knoxville. In 1857 he was elected to Congress by the native American party and was twice re-elected, serving until 1863. In Congress he was a vigorous advocate of the cause of the Union, supporting the administration of President Lincoln in all its war measures. In 1865 he was again elected to Congress, serving ten years. On his retirement from Congress President Grant appointed him minister to Turkey. President Hayes recalled him in 1880 to take the place of Postmaster General. It was during the administration of Postmaster General Maynard and that of his predecessor, David M. Key, the great frauds in the "Star Route" contracts were perpetrated. Neither Mr. Maynard nor Mr. Key had any knowledge of the frauds, but they were made possible by the easy rule of the two Postmaster Generals.

THOMAS L. JAMES

THOMAS L. JAMES—Postmaster General from March 8, 1881, to January 4, 1882. Born in Utica, New York, March 29, 1831. Educated in the public schools. Married Emily L. Freeburn.

1873—Postmaster of New York city.
1881—Postmaster General.

At the age of fifteen Mr. James was apprenticed to the printing business and continued in that business for several years, becoming editor of a Whig paper. In 1861, on receiving an appointment as an inspector in the customs service, he removed to New York city. He was gradually promoted in the service until he became deputy collector under Chester A. Arthur, who afterward became President of the United States. In 1873 he was appointed postmaster of the city of New York and speedily reformed the service, introducing modern business methods. At one time President Hayes tendered him the appointment as Postmaster General, but it was declined. Later he accepted this position in the administration of President Garfield.

Soon after Mr. James became head of the Postoffice Department he discovered a great amount of extravagance and possible frauds in connection with the letting of contracts for "Star Routes" in the mail service. These routes were very popular in the West and Southwest, and the demand for their extension had increased rapidly. A ring was formed, headed, as it was charged, by Assistant Postmaster General Brady, by which routes were established with the sole view of defrauding the government. Postmaster General James discovered that false bonds had been given and enormous and fraudulent sums had been paid for little or no service

The scandal was at its height when President Garfield was assassinated. Postmaster General James and Attorney General McVeagh were busily engaged in preparing to prosecute those charged with being members of the ring at the time of the President's assassination. In March, 1882, indictments were found against Mr. Brady and a number of the contractors and convictions secured in several of the cases.

After retiring from the cabinet Mr. James returned to New York city, where he became identified with the banking interests.

TIMOTHY OTIS HOWE

TIMOTHY O. HOWE—Postmaster General from January 5, 1882, to March 25, 1883. Born in Livermore, Maine, February 17, 1816. Academic education. Died in Kenosha, Wisconsin, March 25, 1883.

1844—Member Maine Legislature.
1850—Judge of Supreme Court of Wisconsin.
1861—United States Senator.
1881—Delegate to the Paris Monetary Conference.
1882—Postmaster General.

After receiving an academic education Mr. Howe studied law and entered upon its practice in Maine. In 1845 he removed to Wisconsin, soon becoming very prominent in his profession. He settled at Green Bay and was elected in 1850 one of the judges of the Supreme Court of the state, serving five years.

In 1861 Mr. Howe was sent to the United States Senate, where he served until March 3, 1879. During the Civil War he was a staunch friend of President Lincoln, supporting his policies in the Senate. As Postmaster General he succeeded in reducing the postage rates and was just introducing several improvements in the service when he died.

FRANK HATTON

FRANK HATTON—Postmaster General from October 14, 1884, to March 6, 1885. Born in Cambridge, Ohio, April 28, 1846. Son of Richard Hatton. Educated in the public schools. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, April 24, 1894.

1881—First Assistant Postmaster General.
1884—Postmaster General.

The father of Mr. Hatton was an editor and publisher of a newspaper and the son learned the printing business in his office. In 1862, at the age of sixteen, young Hatton enlisted in the Union Army, and in 1864 was promoted to a lieutenancy. After the close of the war he became a resident of Iowa and entered upon his career as an editor, a career that brought him reputation and influence. As editor of the Burlington *Hawkeye* he exercised great influence with the Republican party of the state and gained a national reputation. In 1881 President

Garfield made him First Assistant Postmaster General, and on the transfer of Postmaster General Gresham to the Treasury Department, in 1884, President Arthur placed Mr. Hatton at the head of the department.

Retiring from the public service at the close of the administration of President Arthur, Mr. Hatton remained in Washington city, where he became editor and part owner of the Washington *Post*.

WILLIAM FREEMAN VILAS

WILLIAM F. VILAS—Postmaster General from March 7, 1885, to January 16, 1888; Secretary of the Interior from January 17, 1888, to March 6, 1889. Born at Chelsea, Vermont, July 9, 1840. Son of Levi B. and Esther G. (Smilie) Vilas. Educated at Wisconsin University. Married, January 3, 1866, Anna M. Fox. Died in Madison, Wisconsin, August 28, 1908.

1884—Member Wisconsin Legislature.
1885—Postmaster General.
1888—Secretary of the Interior.
1891—United States Senator.

Mr. Vilas attended the district schools in Vermont until his parents removed to Wisconsin in 1851. There he entered the State University, winning a high place as an orator. Graduating from the university in 1858, he took a law course at the University of Albany, New York. He was admitted to the bar in 1860 and began the practice at Madison, Wisconsin. The Civil War came soon afterward and he volunteered, serving to the end of the war, advancing through the several grades until he was mustered out as lieutenant colonel of a regiment.

Resuming the practice of his profession he was appointed in 1868 professor of law in the University of Wisconsin, and for the succeeding seventeen years lectured before the law students of the university. He was a Democrat in politics and was counted as one of the ablest campaign speakers of that party in Wisconsin. As Postmaster General in the first administration of President Cleveland he introduced several reforms, among them being a reduction of postage rates between the United States and Canada and between the United States and Mexico, to the United States domestic rates. He also entered into parcel post conventions with some of the foreign countries.

DON MCDONALD DICKINSON

DON M. DICKINSON—Postmaster General from January 17, 1888, to March 5, 1889. Born at Port Ontario, New York, January 17, 1846. Son of Colonel Asa C. and Minerva Dickinson. Educated in the public schools. Married, June 15, 1869, Frances L. Platt.

1888—Postmaster General.

The ancestors of Mr. Dickinson were among the early settlers of Vermont and were long prominent in public affairs. One of his ancestors founded Dickinson College, at Carlisle, Pennsylvania. The father of Don explored the shores of Lakes Huron, Erie and Michigan in a birch bark canoe, and in 1848 removed his family to Wisconsin, settling in St. Clair county. After receiving a common school education Don entered the law department of the Michigan University. He was admitted to the bar in 1867 and entered upon the practice. He rapidly reached success. Among the prominent cases in which he appeared as an attorney was the celebrated case of Drawbaugh, claiming the patent for having invented the telephone, Mr. Dickinson appearing as one of the counsel for Drawbaugh. He did not take any active part in politics until 1872. From that time he was regarded as one of the Democratic leaders of his state. As Postmaster General his administration was regarded as able and efficient. Leaving the cabinet at the close of the administration of President Cleveland he resumed the practice of law.

JOHN WANAMAKER

JOHN WANAMAKER—Postmaster General from March 6, 1889, to March 6, 1893. Born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, July 11, 1838. Son of Nelson and Elizabeth Deshong (Kochersperger) Wanamaker. Educated in the common schools. Married Mary D. Brown.

1889—Postmaster General.

Executive head of the Postoffice Department is the only public office ever held by Mr. Wanamaker, although from his early manhood he took an active and deep interest in the political affairs of his state and of the nation. The business life of Mr. Wanamaker is a romance only possible in the United States. His father was a brickmaker in a small way and a part of the boyhood of the future great merchant was spent in work in the brickyards of his father. When John was twelve years of age his father removed with his family to Indiana, but remained only a short time, soon returning to his old business in Philadelphia.

As a boy in school John was studious and attentive, but his school life was short, meeting with many interruptions. When he was fifteen years old he started out for himself, taking a place as an errand boy in a general publishing house at one dollar and fifty cents per week. This was his start in life, but it did not suit him, and after a trial of a few months he became a salesman in a ready-to-wear clothing house. With this house he worked for several years, learning business habits and how to save money. By 1861 he had saved about two thousand dollars and with this he entered upon an active business career that placed him among the merchant princes of the country.

It was on account of the great business capacity he had displayed that President Benjamin Harrison selected him for the head of the

Postoffice Department. Into this department Mr. Wannamaker introduced business methods and brought about numerous reforms. His theory was that it was the duty of the government to transport the mails with the utmost possible speed and to deliver such mail promptly to the addressee, and to accomplish this end he bent his energies. Among other improvements he advocated was the introduction of tubular post for the larger cities, whereby mail could be transported to different parts of the city through pneumatic tubes. To expedite the delivery of mails received from foreign countries he negotiated a treaty with Germany whereby the United States and the German government should each place a postal clerk on all vessels carrying mails between the two countries in order that the mails might be separated and arranged for speedy despatch to the various offices of destination on the arrival in port of the vessel.

He advocated a postal telegraph system not by the government purchasing the telegraph lines but by an arrangement with the companies operating the lines. He was an earnest advocate of rural free delivery and of a limited parcel post. He also favored a postal telephone system and an improved method of house-to-house collection of mail.

From an early period of his life Mr. Wannamaker was deeply interested in religious matters and was a liberal giver to the church and to the Young Men's Christian Association as well as to other organizations for moral purposes. Leaving the cabinet at the close of President Harrison's administration, Mr. Wannamaker returned to the management of his large private business interests.

WILSON SHANNON BISSELL

WILSON S. BISSELL—Postmaster General from March 7, 1893, to April 3, 1895. Born in New London, New York, December 31, 1847. Son of John and Isabella Bissell. Educated at Yale College. Married in 1903.

1893—Postmaster General.

After graduating from Yale College Mr. Bissell studied law in the office of Grover Cleveland, afterward President of the United States, and was admitted to the bar in 1871. Some years later he became a law partner of Mr. Cleveland. At the beginning of his second administration President Cleveland appointed Mr. Bissell as Postmaster General. As head of the Postoffice Department Mr. Bissell brought about the shortening of the time in transportation of transcontinental mails by fourteen hours, which was considered a remarkable achievement. He eliminated the ship subsidies that had been granted under the administration of his immediate predecessor. Leaving the cabinet after a service of two years, Mr. Bissell returned to the practice of his profession in Buffalo.

WILLIAM LYNE WILSON

WILLIAM L. WILSON—Postmaster General from April 4, 1895, to March 5, 1897. Born in Jefferson county, Virginia, May 3, 1843. Educated at Columbian College. Died in Lexington, Virginia, October 17, 1900.

1883—Member national House of Representatives.
1895—Postmaster General.

After graduating from the Columbian University of the District of Columbia, Mr. Wilson began a course of study in the University of Virginia. At the outbreak of the Civil War he entered the Confederate Army as a private in the twelfth Virginia cavalry. After the war he was for several years professor of Latin in the Columbian University, during which time he was graduated from its law department. The test oath having been removed he entered upon the practice of his profession at Charlestown, West Virginia. In September, 1882, he was chosen president of the West Virginia University at Charlestown, but soon after was elected to Congress, serving six terms, from March 4, 1883, to March 3, 1895. During the season of Congress in 1893 he was chairman of the House Committee of Ways and Means and reported the tariff bill, later known as the Wilson-Gorman Tariff Act. On the resignation of Wilson S. Bissell as Postmaster General, President Cleveland appointed Mr. Wilson as head of the Postoffice Department, and he served until the end of the administration. After leaving the cabinet Mr. Wilson was elected president of Washington and Lee University in Lexington, Virginia, and died while occupying that position.

JAMES ALBERT GARY

JAMES ALBERT GARY—Postmaster General from March 6, 1897, to April 21, 1898. Born at Uncasville, Connecticut, October 22, 1833. Son of James Sullivan and Parmelia A. (Forrest) Gary. Educated at Rockville Academy and Allegheny College. Married Lavina W. Corrie.

1897—Postmaster General.

The ancestors of Mr. Gary came to America in 1712 and settled first in Pennsylvania. His father was a manufacturer of cotton fabrics and in 1840 removed to Alberton, Maryland, and there established the Alberton cotton mills. In 1861 James Albert became a partner in the business, and on the death of his father became its directing head.

Later he became interested in banking and other financial enterprises. He was in political belief a Whig, favoring the then paramount political issue, a high protective tariff. He was nominated by his party as a candidate for the Maryland Senate and then for Congress, but was not able to secure an election.

When some of the Southern states seceded Mr. Gary became an ardent Unionist and was one of the three delegates from Maryland to the Union Convention. Joining the Republican party he was frequently a delegate to the national conventions of that party and was influential with the party leaders in the state and the nation.

He remained at the head of the Postoffice Department but a little more than one year, when he retired to give his attention to his many business enterprises.

CHARLES EMORY SMITH

CHARLES EMORY SMITH—Postmaster General from April 22, 1898, to January 14, 1902. Born at Mansfield, Connecticut, February 18, 1842. Son of Emory B. and Arvilla (Royce) Smith. Educated at Union College. Married, in 1869, Ella Huntley; October 3, 1907, Nettie Nichols. Died in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, January 19, 1908.

1890—Minister to Russia.
1898—Postmaster General.

When he was still a child the parents of the future Postmaster General removed from Connecticut to Albany, New York. There he completed his education and then engaged in the newspaper business. During the Civil War he was an aide on the staff of General Ruthburn, and his services in recruiting volunteers received the warmest praise from the general and from the governor of the state.

Shortly after the close of the war he became editor of the Albany *Express* and later of the Albany *Evening Journal,* establishing a reputation as a vigorous writer. He was recognized as among the leaders of the Republican party and was sent to the national convention of that party in 1876. He was made secretary of the Committee on Resolutions. At every recurring convention of that party in New York he was one of the delegates and was invariably chosen chairman of the Platform Committee.

In 1886 he removed to Philadelphia and became editor of the Philadelphia *Press,* which, under his management and direction, soon became a leading journal of the country. He was a warm admirer and supporter of President Benjamin Harrison, who sent him to Russia in 1890 as minister plenipotentiary. He held the place for two years, but was not satisfied with the position and he resigned. Returning to Philadelphia he resumed editorial control of the Philadelphia *Press.*

In 1891 he was active in the matter of relief for the people of Prussia. President McKinley called him into his cabinet in 1898 as head of the Postoffice Department. He did not like officeholding, and in 1902, tired of the restrictions, resigned, resuming his editorial work. His administration of the Postoffice Department was universally commended by the press and business interests of the country.

HENRY CLAY PAYNE

HENRY C. PAYNE—Postmaster General from January 15, 1902, to October 1, 1904. Born in Ashfield, Massachusetts, November 23, 1843. Son of Orion P. and Eliza (Ames) Payne. Educated at Franklin Academy. Married, October 15, 1867, Miss Lydia W. Van Dyke.

1876—Postmaster of Milwaukee.
1902—Postmaster General.

After taking a course in Franklin Academy young Payne accepted a position as clerk in the postoffice at Shelburne Falls, Massachusetts. Believing that in the West was the open door for successful business, Mr. Payne removed to Milwaukee in 1863 and there became cashier in a large dry goods store.

He early began to be active in political circles, allying himself with the Republican party. In the campaign of 1872 he organized the Young Men's Republican Club of Milwaukee, the pioneer of such clubs in both parties. Under his direction and management this club became an almost perfect aid to its party.

For about twenty years he was the Wisconsin representative on the Republican National Committee, and that brought him into contact with the leaders of the party throughout the country. He was appointed postmaster of Milwaukee in 1876 and held that office for ten years. In 1902 he was made Postmaster General to succeed Charles Emory Smith. Retiring from that office after a service of about two years he returned to Milwaukee and again engaged in active business enterprises. He was president of the Milwaukee Telephone Company and a director in several banking and financial institutions. When the Northern Pacific Railroad Company got into difficulties Mr. Payne was named receiver for the road. In business he was almost uniformly successful.

ROBERT J. WYNNE

ROBERT J. WYNNE—Postmaster General from October 10, 1904, to March 6, 1905. Born in New York, November 18, 1851. Son of John and Mary Wynne. Educated in the New York public schools. Married, July 7, 1875, Miss Mary E. McCabe. Died in Washington, District of Columbia.

1902—Assistant Postmaster General.
1904—Postmaster General.
1906—Consul General at London.

Postmaster General Wynne began his active life as a telegraph operator. From that he graduated into newspaper work. For a number of years he was the Washington correspondent of the Cincinnati *Commercial-Gazette*. He was a brilliant writer and an industrious news

gatherer. As correspondent he became acquainted with all the public men of Washington and stood high in their estimation for his faithfulness and impartiality in writing of public affairs and of public men.

He was a warm personal friend of President McKinley, who took opportunity to demonstrate his regard for the newspaper man by appointing him to the position of First Assistant Postmaster General, the political part of that department. When the place of Postmaster General became vacant President Roosevelt advanced the assistant to the higher office. In 1906 he was sent to London as consul general. Leaving London in 1910, he returned to Washington, his old home, where he died.

GEORGE VON L. MEYER

GEORGE VON L. MEYER—Postmaster General from March 4, 1907, to March 6, 1909; Secretary of the Navy from March 5, 1909, to March 4, 1913. Born in Boston, Massachusetts, June 24, 1858. Son of George A. and Grace Helen (Parker) Meyer. Married, June 25, 1885, Miss Alice Appleton.

1889—Member Boston Common Council.
1892—Member Massachusetts House of Representatives.
1894—Speaker Massachusetts House of Representatives.
1905—Ambassador to Italy.
1907—Ambassador to Russia.
1907—Postmaster General.
1909—Secretary of the Navy.

From 1889 to 1913, when he retired from the cabinet of President Taft, Mr. Meyer was almost continually in public office. His first position was as a member of the Boston Common Council. He served four years as a member of the Massachusetts House of Representatives, being speaker during his last term. He was appointed ambassador and minister extraordinary to Italy and later to Russia. He developed diplomatic talents of high order and his service in both missions were of great importance to this country.

When Postmaster General Cortelyou was transferred by President Roosevelt to the Treasury Department Mr. Meyer was selected as his successor as Postmaster General. When Mr. Taft became President he transferred Mr. Meyer to the Department of the Navy, where he served until the close of President Taft's term. It was at a time when a stronger and more modern navy was being urged upon Congress, Secretary Meyer consistently and earnestly urging the need of modernization and strengthening that branch of our military service. On the advent of President Wilson's term Mr. Meyer returned to Boston.

FRANK HARRIS HITCHCOCK

FRANK H. HITCHCOCK—Postmaster General from March 5, 1909, to March 4, 1913. Born in Amherst, Ohio, October 5, 1869. Son of Henry Chapman and Mary Laurette (Harris) Hitchcock. Educated at Harvard College. Never married.

1897—Chief of Foreign Markets, Department of Agriculture.
1903—Chief Clerk Department of Commerce and Labor.
1907—First Assistant Postmaster General.
1909—Postmaster General.

If there ever was a born politician Frank Harris Hitchcock could well lay claim to be among that class. In early youth he became an ardent party worker and ever worked with judgment to bring the best results. He was First Assistant Postmaster General when he was called to manage the campaign of Mr. Taft for the presidency. He organized his party in the most thorough manner and won a notable victory. He also managed the campaign of Charles Evans Hughes for the nomination.

During his service as Postmaster General he established postal savings banks and the parcels post system now in operation.

ALBERT SYDNEY BURLESON

ALBERT SYDNEY BURLESON—Postmaster General from March 5, 1913, to March 5, 1921. Born in San Marcos, Texas, June 7, 1863. Son of Edward and Emma (Kyles) Burleson. Educated at the Agricultural College of Texas. Married Miss Adela Steiner.

1885—Assistant City Attorney of Austin, Texas.
1891—Appointed by the Governor Attorney for the 26th Judicial District.
1892—Elected to that office.
1899—Member national House of Representatives.
1913—Postmaster General.

From the first beginning of his professional life Mr. Burleson took an active interest in political matters, and as a member of the national House of Representatives was counted among the leaders of the Democratic party in that body. A ready and fluent debater he took part in many of the discussions in the House during his three terms.

As Postmaster General in the cabinet of President Wilson he was especially active in extending rural free delivery and the parcels post system. Under his administration the railway mail service was improved until it became more efficient than ever before.

WILL S. HAYS

WILL S. HAYS—Postmaster General from March 5, 1921, to March 4, 1922. Born in Sullivan, Indiana, November 5, 1879. Son of John T. and Mary (Cain) Hays. Educated at Wabash College. Married, November 8, 1902, Helen Louise Thomas.

1910—City Attorney of Sullivan.
1917—Chairman of Indiana State Council of Defense.
1921—Postmaster General.

Almost from the beginning of our government the Postoffice Department has been looked upon as the political wing of the administration and its head chosen because of party service. There have been, of course, exceptions to this rule, but generally the position has been the reward of personal or party services. It was so in the case of Mr. Hays. As a practicing attorney in the little city of Sullivan Mr. Hays had been successful and might have grown into a place near the head of the profession had he not devoted so much of his time as a party worker. As a party manager during a heated campaign Mr. Hays has had few if any equals. His state, Indiana, has long been known for its heated political campaigns and frequently party splits have followed. In 1912 the Republican party was torn by factions, the result of Mr. Roosevelt's bolting the nomination of President Taft for a second term.

Mr. Hays was called to head the state committee in 1916, and was so successful in healing the party differences as to win for him a national fame as a party organizer and director. That fame caused his party to select him for chairman of the campaign committee when Mr. Harding was nominated for President. The success of Senator Harding in the election it was recognized was due largely to the ability of Chairman Hays.

The election was hardly over before the party papers began naming him as the probable head of the postal service under President Harding. He was selected for the place and soon became popular with those connected with the departmental work. He did not remain long in office as a much more lucrative position was offered him as managing director of the combined moving picture interests.

HARRY STEWART NEW

HARRY STEWART NEW—Postmaster General from March 5, 1923. Born in Indianapolis, Indiana, December 31, 1858. Son of John C. and Melissa B. (Beeler) New. Educated at Butler University.

1896—Member Indiana Senate.
1899—Captain in the war with Spain.
1907—Chairman Republican National Committee.
1917—Member United States Senate.
1923—Postmaster General.

Postmaster General New came from revolutionary stock. His great-grandfather, Jethro New, was a soldier in the second Delaware regiment under Washington. After the winning of independence Jethro New removed to Indiana in 1808 and settled near Madison. He later removed to Vernon. One of his sons, Robert A., was the first Secretary

Harry S. New.

of State of Indiana. Another son, John Bowman New, was a distinguished preacher of the Christian denomination. He was Postmaster General New's grandfather. His father, John C. New, was quartermaster general of Indiana during the Civil War, and was the intimate friend of Oliver P. Morton, known as "the Great War Governor." When Grant became President he appointed Colonel New treasurer of the United States. Under the administration of President Arthur he was Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

Postmaster General New early displayed a taste for newspaper life, and almost immediately after leaving Butler University he became police reporter on the Indianapolis *Journal*, a paper he with his father later owned. He served the *Journal* in almost every capacity, proving a newspaper man of high order. While serving the *Journal* he became the friend of Whitcomb Riley and started him on the road to fame by printing his verses. As a journalist, and by having a decided bent that way, Mr. New early took deep interest in matters political. He was not an office-seeker in any sense of the word, but was frequently urged by his friends to become a candidate for this or that office.

As a member of the Republican National Committee, and later its chairman, he gave his time and his organizing talents to helping others to office. In 1896, however, he was fairly conscripted into making the race for state senator and was elected by a very decided plurality. In the Senate he gave much thought to judicial and other reforms in the state administration.

When the country became involved in the war with Spain Mr. New immediately offered his services to the governor of the state. He was appointed captain and afterward assistant adjutant general, serving throughout the war.

After disposing of his interest in the Indianapolis *Journal* Mr. New became very active in business, taking a high stand among the business men of Indianapolis. He was president of the Bedford Stone and Construction Company, resigning that position on his election to the United States Senate in 1916. In the Senate he was made a member of the Committee on Military Affairs, a most important committee, for thirteen days later the country was plunged into the war against Germany. As a member of the committee and as a senator, Mr. New ardently supported every measure to strengthen the army and the navy for service against the Germans. As a member of the Committee on Foreign Relations he steadfastly and earnestly opposed the entry of the United States into the proposed League of Nations.

Senator New and President Harding had long been warm personal friends. Almost immediately after the election in 1920 the impression became quite general that Mr. Harding would invite the senator to become a member of his cabinet, and such a tender was made, but the senator preferred to remain in the Senate. Immediately on his retirement from the Senate, March 4, 1923, the President transferred Post-

master General Work to the Department of the Interior and Mr. New was made Postmaster General.

The demands of business were for a more rapid and certain transportation and delivery of mail. The old fashioned horse and saddle bag, its successor, the stage coach, and in turn the successor of the stage coach, the fast mail train, were all out of date. We had to find a still more speedy method of transportation, and to this Postmaster General New at once applied himself on taking charge of the department.

The air above seemed to be the only element not already conquered and brought to the use of man for the activities of peace. It had played a part in war, but peace was demanding something from it. A few experiments had been made for short distance flights, but distance had to be conquered as well as time. From the Atlantic seaboard to that of the Pacific requires a span of more than three thousand miles. On the Atlantic seaboard are the great commercial centers—New York, Boston, Philadelphia and Baltimore. Over on the Pacific they have their counterpart in San Francisco, Portland and Seattle.

Under the direction of Postmaster General New experiments of long distance flights were started. The success has been marvelous. The business man of San Francisco, the merchant or banker, is now separated from his correspondent in New York by only twenty-four hours. What a change! When Thomas Jefferson was Secretary of State he had a sort of supervision over the postal department. One day he called to his office the Postmaster General to see if the mail time between New York and Boston could not be shortened, the time then being about three days. Three days from New York to Boston in the time when George Washington was President and only one day from New York to San Francisco under Coolidge! Mr. New is in hope that even this may be shortened.

WM. E. CHANDLER

JOHN D. LONG

GEORGE BANCROFT

HILLARY A. HERBERT

JOSEPHUS DANIELS

The Department of the Navy

The first suggestion for a naval establishment for the colonies came from General Washington soon after he assumed command of the army at Cambridge. He saw if he was to be successful in his siege of Boston, it would be necessary to have some armed ships to cut off supplies to the British from the sea. Through his efforts five or six small vessels were soon afloat as privateers, and their success induced Congress to take action for the establishment of a regular navy.

On October 13, 1775, Congress resolved that "a swift sailing vessel, to carry ten carriage guns and a proportionate number of swivels, with eighty men," should be fitted out for a cruise of three months for the purpose of intercepting British transports. Almost immediately another of fourteen guns was ordered, and a committee, consisting of Silas Deane, John Langdon and Christopher Gadsden, was appointed to direct naval affairs. Matters now moved rapidly, and in November two more vessels, one of twenty and the other of thirty-six guns, were ordered and the Naval Committee was increased to seven members. On December 18 Congress ordered the construction of thirteen additional vessels, and again increased the membership of the directing committee, styling it the "Marine Committee."

Notwithstanding its numbers and its pompous title, but little real authority was given the committee, all administrative functions being retained by Congress. It soon developed that the committee was too large for successful work. Want of professional skill or nautical knowledge made the duties of the committee vexatious, and finally Congress decided to select three persons well skilled in maritime affairs to execute the business of the navy, under the general supervision of the Marine Committee. John Nixon, John Wharton and Francis Hopkinson were selected and constituted what was called "The Continental Navy Board." A little later two departments were created, one called the Eastern and the other the Middle Department, each having a "Continental Navy Board." This system lasted until late in October, 1779, when a "Board of Admiralty" was created, to consist of three commissioners not members of Congress and two members of Congress.

On May 4, 1780, the board adopted a design for a seal. It consisted of an escutcheon on which was a chevron with a blue field and thirteen perpendicular and mutually supporting bars, alternate red and white. Below the chevron was a reclining anchor. The crest was a ship under sail. The motto, "*Sustentans et Sustentatum*"—Sustaining and Sustained. The legend, "U. S. A. Sigil Naval." This seal was used until the establishment of the present Navy Department in 1798. Some other changes were made in the manner of managing and directing naval affairs, and in 1781 Robert Morris was appointed "Agent of the Marine," and was given full control of the service.

Under the Confederation each state had its own little navy and in nearly all things acted independently of each other until the establishment of the government under the Constitution. By the act approved August 7, 1789, establishing the Department of War, all affairs concerning the navy were placed under the charge of the Secretary of War. This continued until the quasi naval war with France, and the depredations of the Barbary pirates made it necessary that the United States should establish a strong navy.

By an act approved April 30, 1798, it was provided that an executive department to be called the Department of the Navy should be established, with a Secretary who should be the principal officer. He was charged with the duty of executing such orders as he might receive from the President relative to the procurement of naval stores and materials, and the construction, armament, equipment and employment of vessels of war, and, in short, all other matters connected with the naval establishment. To this new department was transferred all the powers and duties concerning the navy that had been exercised by the Secretary of War under the act of August 7, 1789.

Subsequent acts have provided methods of discharging the ministerial duties of the department. In 1862 the Hydrographic Bureau was established and made a part of the Navy Department. In 1880 a Judge Advocate General was provided for, and in 1890 the office of Assistant Secretary of the Navy that had been previously abolished was revived.

In 1838, under the administration of Secretary James K. Paulding, the United States sent out its first exploring expedition. It was sent to the Pacific and the South Pole under command of Commodore Charles Wilkes. It was eminently successful. In 1847, when John Y. Mason was Secretary of the Navy, Lieutenant W. F. Lynch was sent with an expedition to explore the Dead Sea. He was most successful and added largely to the world's knowledge of that singular body of water. Secretary John P. Kennedy, in 1852, fitted out an expedition under the command of Commodore M. C. Perry to Japan. This expedition opened the doors of the island kingdom to the world, but did not complete its work until after Franklin Pierce became President.

When the Navy Department was created in 1798 the old seal was laid aside and the one now in use adopted. Instead of the chevron and

bars the face of the seal has a spread eagle. The anchor and ship are retained, but not in heraldic posture. The motto is omitted and the legend is "NAVY DEPARTMENT, UNITED STATES OF AMERICA."

During the entire administration of President Jefferson an anomalous condition of affairs existed in the Navy Department. On the accession of Mr. Jefferson to the presidency, in 1801, Benjamin Stoddert was Secretary of the Navy under appointment by President John Adams. Secretary Stoddert tendered his resignation February 18, 1801, but continued to act until March 31. President Jefferson was not ready to name a Secretary of the Navy, and he designated Henry Dearborn, Secretary of War, to act as Secretary of the Navy *ad interim*. While General Dearborn was nominally Secretary of the Navy, General Samuel Smith, a representative in Congress from Maryland, was in reality in charge of naval affairs and performed all the duties of the Secretary from March 31 to June 15, 1801. On July 15, during a recess of the Senate, the President appointed and commissioned Robert Smith, a brother of Samuel, as Secretary of the Navy, and he entered upon the discharge of his duties on July 27.

He served under that appointment until March 2, 1805, when he was nominated and confirmed as Attorney General and Jacob Crowninshield was nominated and confirmed as Secretary of the Navy. Mr. Crowninshield declined the office. Mr. Smith was then verbally requested to continue to discharge the duties of Secretary of the Navy although he had been commissioned Attorney General, and without any formal appointment, or confirmation by the Senate or a new commission, he continued so to act until the close of President Jefferson's second term, notwithstanding that on the books of the State Department the name of Mr. Crowninshield was carried as Secretary of the Navy.

In the meantime Robert Breckenridge was nominated and confirmed by the Senate and commissioned as Attorney General and entered upon the discharge of the duties of that office, the office to which Mr. Smith had been confirmed and commissioned. Thus we had the singular situation of Mr. Smith and Mr. Breckenridge both commissioned as Attorney General, Mr. Crowninshield as Secretary of the Navy, and Mr. Smith, whose office as Secretary of the Navy had been vacated by the confirmation and commissioning of Mr. Crowninshield, acting in his own name as Secretary of the Navy without any legal appointment for a period of four years.

The importance of special education for naval officers was not deemed important as early as it was in the army. Before the adoption of the Constitution the need of special training to fit persons to command in case of war impressed itself upon many of the statesmen of the country. As early as 1776, just as the colonies were engaged in the War for Independence, the idea of a national military academy was advanced, and a committee of the Continental Congress was appointed to prepare

a plan for such an institution, but nothing of the kind was thought of for those who were to fight our ships in time of war.

As a rule the entrance to the navy was through appointment as a midshipman. The appointee was at once assigned to some vessel then at sea, or preparing for a sea voyage. After a lapse of years the need of special education forced itself upon the attention of the authorities. Many of the boys appointed as midshipmen were of very limited education, and it was felt this should be remedied. A sort of a school was established in Philadelphia. Prior to entering that school the junior officers received a desultory teaching from chaplains and schoolmasters partly on board cruising ships and partly at shore stations.

Finally three naval schools, so called, were established on shore—at Boston, New York and Norfolk. Each of them had an instructor in mathematics and occasionally one teaching French and Spanish. Finally one of more pretensions was established at Philadelphia in a part of the building occupied as a home for naval officers. In none of these schools, however, was there given a full course of instruction. It was left to George Bancroft, when he was Secretary of the Navy, to give to the country the Naval Academy at Annapolis. The academy was not established through formal legislation by Congress, but was opened in October, 1845, under orders from Secretary Bancroft. In 1850 the school was formally recognized as a national institution and its name changed.

At the outbreak of the Civil War the academy was removed to Newport, Rhode Island, where it remained until the summer of 1865. As an institution of learning it ranks alongside of the academy of West Point.

As a rule the Navy Department has sustained the action of naval officers who, in pursuance of their duties, have become engaged in controversies with the authorities of other countries, but this has not always been the case. At least one case of gross injustice was perpetrated by the department whereby the country lost the services of one of the great heroes of the War of 1812.

No officer won more glory in that war than did Commodore David Porter. Every reader of our naval history will recall the wonderful cruise of the *Essex* under the command of David Porter and the battles he fought. In 1822 he was in command of the squadron engaged in the suppression of piracy in the West Indies. One of his officers searching for pirates landed at the town of Fajardo, in Porto Rico, and was ill-treated by the local authorities. Porter resented the affront. He landed with a force and captured the fort and retained possession of it until the authorities made an apology. Porter, by order of the Secretary of the Navy, was court-martialed and suspended for six months. He at once resigned and entered the service of Mexico. The United States thus lost the services of that brilliant officer.

Among the many peculiar things in the history of the Department of the Navy may be classed its attitude at the opening of the war with Tripoli. That piratical country had declared war against the United

States and a fleet was sent to the Mediterranean. It will be recalled that President Jefferson was at that time a "strict-constructionist"—that is, one who believed the Constitution was to be strictly construed in every respect. Under such a theory he could not recognize a war as existing until it was formally declared by Congress, although a foreign state had declared war against the United States and was prosecuting active and aggressive hostilities. The squadron sent to the Mediterranean could do nothing but act on the defensive. The squadron met one of the enemy's ships and a battle took place. The enemy was captured but under the instructions from the Navy Department had to be released.

When the Navy Department was organized the navy consisted of three vessels only, and they of small armament. Under Secretary Stoddert this force was soon increased until thirty-three vessels were under the flag. It was Secretary Stoddert who issued the orders to the American war vessels to seize any French armed vessels they should meet. He at the same time ordered all American vessels to resist to the utmost any attempt by British vessels to search American ships.

Roster of Secretaries of the Navy

Benjamin Stoddert, of Maryland.
From June 18, 1798, to March 31, 1801.

Robert Smith, of Maryland.
From July 27, 1801, to March 7, 1809.

Paul Hamilton, of South Carolina.
From May 15, 1809, to December 31, 1812.

William Jones, of Pennsylvania.
From January 19, 1813, to December 1, 1814.

Benjamin W. Crowninshield, of Massachusetts.
From January 16, 1815, to September 30, 1818.

Smith Thompson, of New York.
From January 1, 1819, to August 31, 1823.

Samuel L. Southard, of New Jersey.
From September 16, 1823, to March 3, 1829.

John Branch, of North Carolina.
From March 9, 1829, to May 12, 1831.

Levi Woodbury, of New Hampshire.
From May 23, 1831, to June 30, 1834 (*see* Department of the Treasury).

Mahlon Dickerson, of New Jersey.
From July 1, 1834, to June 30, 1838.

James K. Paulding, of New York.
From July 1, 1838, to March 3, 1841.

George E. Badger, of North Carolina.
From March 6, 1841, to September 11, 1841.

Abel P. Upshur, of Virginia.
From October 11, 1841, to July 23, 1843.

David Henshaw, of Massachusetts.
From July 24, 1843, to February 19, 1844; nomination rejected by the Senate.

Thomas W. Gilmer, of Virginia.
From February 19, 1844, to February 28, 1844.

JOHN Y. MASON, of Virginia.
From March 26, 1844, to March 10, 1845, and from September 10, 1846, to March 7, 1849.

GEORGE BANCROFT, of Massachusetts.
From March 11, 1845, to September 9, 1846.

WILLIAM B. PRESTON, of Virginia.
From March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850.

WILLIAM A. GRAHAM, of North Carolina.
From August 2, 1850, to July 25, 1852.

JOHN P. KENNEDY, of Maryland.
From July 26, 1852, to March 7, 1853.

JOHN C. DOBBIN, of North Carolina.
From March 8, 1853, to March 6, 1857.

ISAAC TOUCEY, of Connecticut.
From March 7, 1857, to March 6, 1861.

GIDEON WELLES, of Connecticut.
From March 7, 1861, to March 3, 1869.

ADOLPH E. BORIE, of Pennsylvania.
From March 9, 1869, to June 25, 1869.

GEORGE M. ROBESON, of New Jersey.
From June 25, 1869, to March 12, 1877.

RICHARD W. THOMPSON, of Indiana.
From March 13, 1877, to December 20, 1880.

NATHAN GOFF, of West Virginia.
From January 7, 1881, to March 7, 1881.

WILLIAM H. HUNT, of Louisiana.
From March 7, 1881, to April 16, 1882.

WILLIAM E. CHANDLER, of New Hampshire.
From April 17, 1882, to March 6, 1885.

WILLIAM C. WHITNEY, of New York.
From March 7, 1885, to March 5, 1889.

BENJAMIN F. TRACY, of New York.
From March 6, 1889, to March 6, 1893.

HILLARY A. HERBERT, of Alabama.
From March 7, 1893, to March 5, 1897.

JOHN D. LONG, of Massachusetts.
From March 6, 1897, to April 30, 1902.

WILLIAM H. MOODY, of Massachusetts.
From May 1, 1902, to July 1, 1904.

PAUL MORTON, of Illinois.
From July 1, 1904, to July 1, 1905.

CHARLES J. BONAPARTE, of Maryland.
From July 1, 1905, to December 12, 1906 (*see* Department of Justice).

VICTOR H. METCALF, of California.
From December 12, 1906, to December 1, 1908.

TRUMAN H. NEWBERRY, of Michigan.
From December 1, 1908, to March 5, 1909.

GEORGE VON L. MEYER, of Massachusetts.
From March 2, 1907, to March 5, 1909 (*see* Postoffice Department).

JOSEPHUS DANIELS, of South Carolina.
From March 5, 1913, to March 4, 1921.

EDWIN DENBY, of Michigan.
From March 4, 1921, to March 10, 1924.

CURTIS D. WILBUR, of California.
From March 19, 1924.

Henry Cabot, of Massachusetts, was nominated, confirmed and commissioned the First Secretary of the Navy, but declined to serve.

David Henshaw, of Massachusetts, was appointed and commissioned Secretary of the Navy by President Tyler during a recess of the Senate and entered upon the discharge of his duties. His nomination was sent to the Senate on December 6, 1843, and was rejected January 15, 1844, but he continued to act until February 19.

Thomas W. Gilmer, Secretary of the Navy, was killed by an explosion of a gun on the steamer *Princeton* only nine days after entering upon the duties of his office.

Biographies of Secretaries of the Navy

Benjamin Stoddert

Benjamin Stoddert—Secretary of the Navy from June 18, 1798, to March 31, 1801. Born in Charles county, Maryland, in 1751. Son of Thomas and Sarah (Marshall) Stoddert. Married, June 7, 1781, Miss Rebecca Sanders. Died in Bladensburg, Maryland, December 18, 1813.

1798—Secretary of the Navy.

The ancestors of Benjamin Stoddert were among the first settlers of Maryland. His grandfather emigrated to that colony in 1675. The father of Benjamin served in the old French and Indian wars as a captain of militia and was killed at Braddock's defeat.

Benjamin was brought up as a merchant but at the outbreak of the War of the Revolution he joined the army of the colonies and was made captain of cavalry. He served with distinction in many engagements and reached the rank of major, when he was seriously wounded at the battle of the Brandywine.

Recovering from his wound he was made secretary of the Board of War and filled that position until 1782. After the close of the war Major Stoddert settled in Georgetown, Maryland, now District of Columbia, and engaged in merchandizing, in which he was very successful. His large ventures in merchandizing and in commerce attracted wide attention to him as a man of sound executive ability.

The Navy Department was established in 1798, and President Adams first tendered the appointment as Secretary to George Cabot, of Massachusetts, who declined. The President then induced Mr. Stoddert to take charge and organize the new department. He did this with great energy, being the first to formulate a distinctive navy for the new republic. It was through his energy and foresight that the administration of President Jefferson was able to so severely punish the Barbary pirates. Before surrendering the department to his successor Secretary Stoddert had despatched several vessels to the Mediterranean. It was one of the vessels so sent that fought and captured one of the strongest of the warships of Tripoli, in August, 1801.

After leaving the cabinet Mr. Stoddert gave some time to closing up his business affairs and then retired from business altogether.

Robert Smith

Robert Smith—Secretary of the Navy from July 27, 1801, to March 7, 1809; Secretary of State from March 6, 1809, to March 31, 1811. Born at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, November, 1757. Son of John Smith. Educated at Princeton College. Died in Baltimore, Maryland, November 26, 1842.

1793—Member Maryland Senate.
1796—Member Maryland House of Delegates.
1801—Secretary of the Navy.
1809—Secretary of State.

The Navy Department during the administration of President Jefferson presented one of the most curious cabinet complications known in the political history of the country. When Mr. Jefferson began framing his cabinet he had great difficulty in securing any one to take the navy secretaryship, and requested Benjamin Stoddert, who was holding the place under appointment by President John Adams, to continue in office until a suitable successor could be found. The place was tendered to Robert R. Livingston, of New York, who rejected it. It was then tendered to General Samuel Smith, a member of Congress from Maryland, who declined. The appointment was then successively offered to John Langdon, of New Hampshire, and to William Jones, of Pennsylvania, both refusing to accept. Secretary Stoddert grew tired of waiting and peremptorily resigned.

Henry Dearborn, Secretary of War, was made *ad interim* Secretary of the Navy on April 1, 1801, and so continued on the roll until July 17, but during that time the affairs of the department were administered by Samuel Smith, a member of Congress. Representative Smith was a political power in Maryland, and had been largely instrumental in securing the election of Mr. Jefferson by the House of Representatives. He finally induced the President to make his brother, Robert Smith, a Baltimore lawyer, Secretary of the Navy. Under President Jefferson's ideas of a navy the department did not have much to do, but the Secretary was the President's special messenger in carrying his wishes to various members of Congress, both of the House and of the Senate.

A cabinet complication soon arose. In December, 1804, Levi Lincoln, Attorney General, resigned, and Secretary Smith asked for the vacant place, it being more congenial as it was in the line of his profession. He was appointed, confirmed and commissioned. At the same time Jacob Crowninshield, of Massachusetts, was nominated, confirmed and commissioned as Secretary of the Navy, but refused to accept. Under ordinary circumstances the confirmation of Mr. Crowninshield would have displaced Mr. Smith, especially as he had been commissioned, and accepted, the office of Attorney General, but President Jefferson verbally requested him to remain at the head of the Navy Dpartment, which he did through the remainder of the term of President Jefferson, although on the books of the Secretary of the State the name of Mr. Crowninshield was carried as Secretary of the Navy, and the attorney generalship, to which Mr. Smith had been appointed, was filled by the appointment and confirmation of John Breckenridge. The name of Mr. Crowninshield was carried on the books of the State Department as Secretary of the Navy for more than a year after Mr. Crowninshield had died.

Before Mr. Smith became Secretary of the Navy a naval force had been sent to the Mediterranean to protect American ships. In August, 1801, an American brig of war, after an engagement which lasted for several hours, captured one of the pirate vessels. This caused the administration to increase the force of vessels in the Mediterranean. Secretary Smith displayed energy and foresight in pushing forward the reinforcements. The expedition proved to be a complete success, humbling the Barbary Powers.

When this was over President Jefferson pushed forward his gun boat idea of a naval establishment, and the duties of the Secretary were rather perfunctory. Mr. Smith remained at the head of the Navy Department until after Mr. Madison became President. Mr. Smith was very desirous of being made Secretary of the Treasury, and his appointment as such was urged upon President Madison, but the President preferred to retain Mr. Gallatin. To harmonize matters the President made a suggestion that Mr. Gallatin take the State Department, let Mr. Smith be named as Secretary of the Treasury, but Mr. Gallatin to be the real head. This was rejected by Secretary Gallatin and Mr. Smith became Secretary of State.

President Madison has recorded that during all the time Mr. Smith was at the head of the State Department, he (Madison) had to act as his own secretary of foreign affairs, writing all the important papers himself and taking all negotiations into his own hands. Of the papers prepared by Secretary Smith President Madison said they were so crude and inadequate that he was obliged to rewrite them anew.

While a member of President Madison's cabinet Secretary Smith talked a great deal to members of Congress and others, criticizing the administration. The President accused him of thus being indiscreet, talking to those he knew to be unfriendly to the administration, and on one occasion bluntly told him he did not possess talents adapted to his official station, but in the face of this severe criticism the Secretary clung to his office.

Matters were at last brought to a crisis by a threat of Secretary Gallatin that he would relinquish the Treasury Department unless Mr. Smith was dismissed from the cabinet. On this President Madison demanded the resignation of the Secretary of State. He tried to remove a part of the sting of this abrupt dismissal by offering him the mission to Russia, which was declined.

After leaving the cabinet Mr. Smith wrote and published an address to the people in defense of himself and gravely compromising President Madison. In this defense he placed himself in the curious position of severely condemning papers he had signed with his own name. He had been a man of considerable influence before his dismissal from the cabinet, but lost it all. He lived for thirty years after his retirement from the cabinet but never again held any public office.

PAUL HAMILTON

PAUL HAMILTON—Secretary of the Navy from May 15, 1809, to December 31, 1812. Born in St. Paul's Parish, South Carolina, October 16, 1762. Died at Beaufort, South Carolina, June 30, 1816.

1798—Comptroller of South Carolina.
1804—Governor of South Carolina.
1809—Secretary of the Navy.

President Madison selected his Secretary of the Navy from South Carolina, naming for that position Governor Paul Hamilton, who was nominated, confirmed and commissioned on March 7, 1809, but did not assume charge of the department until May 15 ensuing. Mr. Hamilton had long exercised a wide influence in his native state. For five years he filled the office of comptroller of the state and in that position developed financial ability of a high order. In 1804 he was elected governor of the state.

In politics he was an earnest follower of Mr. Jefferson, and had supported the candidacy of Mr. Madison with enthusiasm. His administration of the Navy Department was weak and vacillating. When war was threatening between the United States and Great Britain fear of the naval power of that country was an obsession with him. He advocated keeping all the American frigates in the home harbors, for harbor defense on the ground that they would be no match for the British vessels.

As a result of this policy several of the finest frigates of the American navy were blockaded in port during most of the war. He made little or no effort to equip the vessels for sea duty. At one time he gave permission to the frigate *Constitution* to sail, and then repented, sending contrary orders, but those orders did not reach Boston until an hour or more after the *Constitution* had spread her sails. By this lucky early start the *Constitution* was enabled to capture the *Guerriere*. Congressional pressure forced the President to ask for the resignation of Mr. Hamilton.

WILLIAM JONES

WILLIAM JONES—Secretary of the Navy from January 19, 1813, to December 1, 1814. Born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in 1760. Academic education. Died in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, September 5, 1831.

1801—Member national House of Representatives.
1813—Secretary of the Navy.

Mr. Jones had not completed his term at the academy when the Revolutionary War broke out. He joined the army and served with a company of volunteers in the battles of Trenton and Princeton. He

later joined the naval force under Commodore Truxton, serving with the James River flotilla. He was twice wounded and twice taken prisoner.

Before the close of the war he removed to South Carolina, but returned to Pennsylvania. He was originally a Federalist, but during the administration of President John Adams he became a Republican follower of Mr. Jefferson, who was then Vice President, and as a Republican was elected to Congress, serving one term from March 4, 1801, to March 3, 1803. He returned to Philadelphia, where he had large interests as a ship owner, but continued to take an active interest in politics and in all public affairs. President Jefferson had tendered him the secretaryship of the navy but he declined, preferring to give attention to his own private affairs. His shipping interests suffered greatly from the embargo.

During the war with Great Britain the administration of the Navy Department was, at first, characterized by extreme timidity and vacillation, and because of his vacillation Secretary Hamilton was requested to resign. Mr. Jones was appointed to the vacancy and his administration was but a slight improvement on that of his predecessor. Our ships on the lakes and on the ocean continued to win amazing victories despite the fears of the naval authorities that we could not safely contend on the seas with Great Britain.

Secretary Jones was the subject of severe criticism in the newspapers and on the floor of Congress, until he became so aggrieved that in September, 1814, he tendered his resignation, but continued to serve until December 1, when he finally retired to private life.

BENJAMIN WILLIAM CROWNINSHIELD

BENJAMIN W. CROWNINSHIELD—Secretary of the Navy from January 16, 1815, to September 30, 1818. Born at Boston, Massachusetts, March 27, 1772. Son of George and Mary (Derby) Crowninshield. Academic education. Married Mrs. Elizabeth (Clifford) Allen. Died in Boston, February 3, 1851.

1807—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1812—Member Massachusetts Senate.
1815—Secretary of the Navy.
1823—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1829—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1833—Member Massachusetts Legislature.

Little is of record regarding the family of Benjamin W. Crowninshield, who served as Secretary of the Navy during a part of the second administration of President Madison and of the first of President Monroe. He was born at Boston, and after receiving a fair education engaged in the mercantile business at Salem, Massachusetts. He was successful as a business man and wielded much influence in the community. He served several terms in the legislature of his state but

had never held any important official position until President Madison appointed him as head of the Navy Department.

He was a man of great energy and fine administrative abilities. The most notable event of his administration of the Navy Department was the sending of a large naval force, consisting of ten fine vessels of war, to Algiers when the Dey of that country declared war against the United States. The expedition was commanded by Commodore Decatur and was the largest naval expedition ever sent out by the United States up to that period. It was most admirably equipped in all points for the service intended. The Secretary of the Navy displayed great promptness and efficiency in fitting out and despatching this force, receiving great credit from the press and the people. There is nothing known as to the causes of his leaving the cabinet, but his resignation as Secretary was entirely voluntary on his part.

After leaving the cabinet he returned to Massachusetts, where he remained throughout the remainder of his life a man of influence with the people.

SMITH THOMPSON

SMITH THOMPSON—Secretary of the Navy from January 1, 1819, to September 1, 1823. Born at Stanford, Dutchess county, New York, January 17, 1768. Educated at Princeton College. Died at Poughkeepsie, New York, December 18, 1843.

1800—Member New York Legislature.
1801—Delegate to the New York Constitutional Convention.
1802—Associate Justice of the New York Supreme Court.
1814—Chief Justice of the New York Supreme Court.
1819—Secretary of the Navy.
1823—Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

For forty-three years Smith Thompson was continuously in the service of his native state or of the federal government. He quitted one office only to accept another. For twenty years he was a member of the Supreme Court of the United States, ranking with the ablest of those who have filled positions on that bench.

When but twenty years of age he graduated from Princeton College. He studied law and in 1792 was admitted to the bar, beginning his practice at Poughkeepsie, which was ever afterward his home. Rising rapidly in his profession he took an active interest in the politics of the day, uniting with the Republicans. As a follower of Jefferson he was elected in 1800 a member of the New York Legislature. The next year he was sent as a delegate to the New York Constitutional Convention, in which he took a prominent part.

In 1802 Mr. Thompson was chosen one of the associate justices of the Supreme Court of the state, and served as such until he was made chief justice of the court in 1814. President Monroe's administration was famous for the able men he gathered around him as heads of the

various executive departments—John Quincy Adams, Crawford, Calhoun and Wirt, and to these, in 1818, he added Smith Thompson as Secretary of the Navy. All the previous selections for Secretary of the Navy had been made from those engaged in commercial business, and it was a great departure to select a head of that department from the legal profession, but Mr. Thompson did not disappoint his chief.

Secretary Thompson did not assume the duties of the office until nearly two months after the confirmation of his appointment, and he served until August 31, 1823, when he was appointed an associate justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. With his colleagues in the cabinet Secretary Thompson aided in building up and maintaining the "Era of Good Feeling" and added to the popularity of the administration of President Monroe.

It was under the administration of Secretary Thompson that the first school for the education and training of naval midshipmen was organized. It was the nucleus of the great Naval Academy at Annapolis. Mr. Thompson was a man of great learning, and the opinions written by him while a member of the Supreme Court have always been highly regarded.

SAMUEL LEWIS SOUTHARD

SAMUEL L. SOUTHARD—Secretary of the Navy from September 16, 1823, to March 3, 1829. Born in Baskenridge, New Jersey, June 9, 1787. Son of Henry Southard. Educated at Princeton College. Married Rebecca Harrow. Died in Fredericksburg, Virginia, June 26, 1842.

1815—Member New Jersey Legislature.
1815—Justice of the New Jersey Supreme Court.
1821—United States Senator.
1823—Secretary of the Navy.
1829—Attorney General of New Jersey.
1832—Governor of New Jersey.
1833—United States Senator.

Among the distinguished men New Jersey has furnished the country is Samuel L. Southard. A graduate of Princeton College in the class of 1802, he devoted himself to the study of law, and on being admitted to the bar began practice in Trenton. In 1815 he was elected a member of the state legislature, but one week after the opening of the legislative session he was appointed associate justice of the Supreme Court of the state, and served until he was elected United States senator, in 1821, to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of James J. Wilson. In the Senate he was a firm supporter of the administration of President Monroe.

He was appointed Secretary of the Navy during a recess of the Senate. He served as head of the Navy Department until the close of the administration of President John Quincy Adams. His administration

on the whole was successful. On leaving the cabinet he was appointed attorney general of New Jersey and in 1832 was elected governor of the state.

In 1833 he was again sent to the United States Senate and served until failing health caused him to resign in 1842. In the Senate he was regarded as one of the strong debaters. He voted against the removal of the government deposits from the United States Bank, making a strong speech on the question. He also opposed the expunging resolutions of Senator Benton. He survived his resignation but a little more than one month, dying in Fredericksburg, Virginia, where he had gone in search of health.

JOHN BRANCH

JOHN BRANCH—Secretary of the Navy from March 9, 1829, to May 12, 1831. Born in Halifax county, North Carolina, November 1, 1782. Educated at the University of North Carolina. Married Miss Fort; Mrs. Bond. Died at Enfield, North Carolina, January 4, 1863.

1811—Member North Carolina Senate.
1817—Governor of North Carolina.
1822—Member North Carolina Senate.
1823—United States Senator.
1829—Secretary of the Navy.
1831—Member national House of Representatives.
1835—Member North Carolina Constitutional Convention.
1844—Governor of Florida.

President Jackson's first Secretary of the Navy was John Branch, of North Carolina, a man who had been governor of his state and was a member of the United States Senate. Mr. Branch inherited a fine estate and was liberally educated, graduating from the University of North Carolina in 1801. He studied law but never practiced his profession, giving his time to the management of his estate and to politics.

In 1811 he was elected to the North Carolina Senate and remained a member of that body continuously until 1817, when he was elected governor of the state. In 1822 he was again a member of the State Senate, and in 1823 was elected to the United States Senate, serving from March 4, 1823, to March 9, 1829, when he resigned to accept a seat in the first cabinet of President Jackson.

Secretary Branch became involved in the cabinet troubles growing out of the social ostracism of the wife of General Eaton, Secretary of War, and when the cabinet was reorganized in 1831 he with the other members resigned. In politics Mr. Branch was a follower of Mr. Calhoun and was given a seat in the cabinet as a friend of the Vice President. In 1831 Mr. Branch became a representative in Congress, serving one term. He was appointed governor of Florida in 1844 by President Tyler, holding that office until Florida was admitted as a state the next year.

MAHLON DICKERSON

MAHLON DICKERSON—Secretary of the Navy from July 1, 1834, to June 30, 1838. Born in Hanover, New Jersey, April 17, 1770. Son of Jonathan Dickerson. Educated at Princeton College. Died in Morris county, New Jersey, October 5, 1853.

1812—Member New Jersey Legislature.
1813—Justice of the New Jersey Supreme Court.
1815—Governor of New Jersey.
1817—United States Senator.
1834—Secretary of the Navy.
1838—United States Judge, District of New Jersey.

In 1834, when Levi Woodbury was transferred from the Navy to the Treasury Department, President Jackson nominated as his successor in the Navy Department Mahlon Dickerson, who had represented the state of New Jersey in the United States Senate for sixteen years.

After completing his college course in 1789, Mr. Dickerson studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1793. He located in Philadelphia, where he soon became very popular, filling a number of local offices. He was state commissioner of bankruptcy in 1802; adjutant general from 1805 to 1808; and recorder of Philadelphia from 1808 to 1810.

In the latter year he returned to his native state to manage the estate left by his father. Two years after his return to New Jersey he was elected a member of the state legislature and the next year was made justice of the State Supreme Court. In 1815 he was elected governor without opposition and was re-elected in 1816. Before the close of his second term as governor he was elected to the United States Senate, serving from March 4, 1817, to January 30, 1829, when he resigned. He was immediately re-elected to the Senate to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Senator Ephriam Bateman, and served to March 3, 1833.

In the Senate he was a staunch adherent of President Jackson, who offered him, in 1834, the Russian mission, but Senator Dickerson declined it. The opportunity offering, soon afterward, Mr. Dickerson was given a seat in the cabinet. He served through the remainder of the administration of President Jackson and one year in that of President Van Buren. It was under his administration of the Navy Department that steam was first introduced as a motive power for naval vessels.

JAMES KIRKE PAULDING

JAMES K. PAULDING—Secretary of the Navy from July 1, 1838, to March 3, 1841. Born in Dutchess county, New York, August 22, 1778. Son of William and Catherine (Ogden) Paulding. Educated in the common schools. Married, in 1818, Miss Gertrude Kemble. Died at Hyde Parke, New York, April 6, 1860.

1815—Member of the Board of Naval Commissioners.
1823—Naval Agent, New York City.
1838—Secretary of the Navy.
1846—United States Senator.

The father of the future author and cabinet minister was an ardent patriot during the Revolutionary War and pledged his whole fortune to assist the Continental Army and sacrificed it. James early displayed a fondness and a talent for literature and at an early age began writing for the press. He was an intimate friend of Washington Irving and with Mr. Irving edited the *Salamagundi,* a literary and humorous publication.

In 1815, President Madison appointed him a member of the newly created Board of Navy Commissioners, a position he held until 1823, when he resigned to accept the office of naval agent at New York city. He held the position of naval agent under three administrations, resigning in 1838, when he was made Secretary of the Navy.

Secretary Paulding proved an efficient head of the Navy Department. He adopted the school for training midshipmen established by Smith Thompson when he was Secretary, and established it in the Naval Home at Philadelphia, enlarging the course of study. He organized and superintended the despatching of the exploring expedition to the South Pacific and the South Pole under the command of Commodore Wilkes.

Mr. Paulding was the author of a large number of volumes, some of them ranking high in a literary point of view.

GEORGE EDMOND BADGER

GEORGE E. BADGER—Secretary of the Navy from March 6, 1841, to September 11, 1841. Born in New Bern, North Carolina, April 17, 1790. Son of Thomas and Lydia (Cogsdell) Badger. Educated at Yale College. Died at Raleigh, North Carolina, May 11, 1865.

1816—Member North Carolina Legislature.
1820—Judge of the Superior Court of North Carolina.
1841—Secretary of the Navy.
1846—United States Senator.

George E. Badger, who served as Secretary of the Navy for a few months in the administrations of Presidents William Henry Harrison and John Tyler, has a unique history among American politicians. While he was a member of the United States Senate, President Fillmore, in 1853, nominated him for associate justice of the United States Supreme Court. The Senate rejected the nomination. This is said to be the only instance where the Senate rejected the nomination of one of its own members to any presidential office. Two years later, on the expiration of his term as senator and when he was about to leave that body, the Senate in executive session unanimously adopted

a resolution expressing the great regret of his fellow-members at his retirement from the Senate, a most unusual action.

Mr. Badger did not complete his collegiate course, but left Yale College at the close of his first year to begin the study of law. He was admitted to the bar in 1810 when he was but twenty years of age. During the War of 1812 he served on the staff of General Calvin Jones, with the rank of major.

Returning from the army he practiced law in Raleigh until 1820, when he was elected judge of the Superior Court of the state. He served on the bench for five years and again returned to the practice of his profession. He was a Whig in politics and took a very active part in the exciting political campaign of 1840, when General William Henry Harrison was elected President. On the accession of Mr. Harrison to the presidency Judge Badger was appointed Secretary of the Navy. With the other members of the cabinet Secretary Badger resigned in the following September when President Tyler broke from the Whig party.

In 1846 he was elected to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy and re-elected for a full term, serving until March 3, 1855. At that time he permanently retired from public life, but in 1861 was a member of the North Carolina Secession Convention.

ABEL PARKER UPSHUR

ABEL PARKER UPSHUR—Secretary of the Navy from October 11, 1841, to July 23, 1843; Secretary of State from July 24, 1843, to February 28, 1844. Born in Northampton county, Virginia, June 17, 1790. Educated at Princeton College. Died near Washington, District of Columbia, February 28, 1844.

1826—Judge of the General Court of Virginia.
1829—Member of the Virginia Constitutional Convention.
1841—Secretary of the Navy.
1843—Secretary of State.

For nearly sixteen years Abel Parker Upshur was a distinguished jurist in his native state. After securing an education at Nassau Hall, Princeton College, he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1812. He successfully practiced his profession until he was appointed a member of the General Court of Virginia in 1826, a position he continued to hold until he was appointed Secretary of the Navy, in 1841, by President Tyler on the reorganization of his cabinet. The annexation of Texas was a mooted matter during his administration of the Navy Department, and Secretary Upshur urged a large increase of the naval force in expectation that a war with Mexico would follow the annexation of Texas if that event occurred. He recommended a large increase of ships, seamen and officers, and Congress accepted his recommendation by a narrow vote.

Shortly after the resignation of the State Department by Daniel Webster in May, 1843, President Tyler transferred Mr. Upshur from the Navy to the State Department. During his short service as head of the State Department, Secretary Upshur opened up the question of the right of Denmark to collect dues from vessels navigating the sounds connecting the Baltic Sea with the ocean. For centuries Denmark had been examining all vessels navigating the sounds and exacting dues from them on vessel and cargo. This practice had been acquiesced in by all nations. When Henry Clay was Secretary of State in the administration of President John Quincy Adams, he protested against the practice, but all he could accomplish was to secure a reduction. In 1843 Secretary Upshur, in a communication to the President, held that the time had come for the United States to take decisive action to free the Baltic trade from this oppression. His sudden death and the Mexican War which soon followed prevented any decisive action for some years, and it was not until Franklin Pierce was President the matter was finally solved.

Secretary Upshur was one of the party on board the steamer *Princeton,* on February 28, 1844, when the great gun "Peacemaker," exploded, killing Mr. Upshur, Mr. Gilmer, Secretary of the Navy, and several others. President Tyler was also on board but escaped unhurt.

DAVID HENSHAW

DAVID HENSHAW—Secretary of the Navy from July 24, 1843, to February 19, 1844. Born in Leicester, Massachusetts, April 2, 1791. Son of David Henshaw. Educated at Leicester Academy. Died at Leicester, Massachusetts, November 11, 1862.

1830—Collector of the Port of Boston.
1843—Secretary of the Navy.

The ancestors of David Henshaw were among the original proprietors of the town of Leicester. His father was a gallant soldier in the War of the Revolution and for many years was a popular magistrate. David spent his boyhood days on the farm and for a time attended the Leicester Academy. At the age of sixteen years he was apprenticed to the drug trade in Boston. He spent all his leisure time in reading and study. At the age of twenty-one he began business for himself.

He took great interest in political matters and acquired a reputation of being one of the best political writers of his time. He was a warm and enthusiastic Democrat and became one of the leaders of that party in Massachusetts. He retired from active business in 1830. He served several terms in both houses of the Massachusetts Legislature, and in 1830 was appointed collector of the port of Boston.

He interested himself in several railroad projects and was largely instrumental in the building of one or two important lines into Boston.

When Secretary Upshur was transferred by President Tyler from the Navy to the State Department he appointed Mr. Henshaw Secretary of the Navy during a recess of the Senate. His nomination was rejected on January 15, 1844, but he continued to serve until February 19. While he was Secretary he revived the school for training and educating midshipman and established it at the Naval Home in Philadelphia, extending the period of instruction to two years.

THOMAS WALKER GILMER

THOMAS W. GILMER—Secretary of the Navy from February 19, 1844, to February 28, 1844. Born at Gilmerton, Albemarle county, Virginia, April 6, 1802. Son of George and Eliza (Hudson) Gilmer. Educated at private schools. Died near Washington, District of Columbia, February 28, 1844.

1825—Member Virginia Legislature.
1829—Speaker Virginia House of Representatives.
1840—Governor of Virginia.
1841—Member national House of Representatives.
1844—Secretary of the Navy.

Receiving a superior education at private schools Mr. Gilmer became editor of the Virginia *Advocate,* a Democratic paper established to support General Jackson as a candidate for the presidency. He served several terms in the Virginia Legislature, always as a Democrat, but when President Jackson issued his proclamation against the nullifiers, Mr. Gilmer left the Democratic party and united with the Whigs, and in 1840 was elected by that party as governor of the state.

As governor he had a heated controversy with Governor William H. Seward, of New York, over the refusal of the New York governor to return fugitive slaves. Governor Gilmer endeavored to retaliate by refusing to extradite criminals. In this the Virginia Legislature refused to sustain him and he resigned the governorship.

In 1841 he was elected to Congress as a Whig, but returned to the Democratic party because of the attitude of the Whigs on the annexation of Texas, and as a Democrat he was re-elected to Congress, serving until he was appointed Secretary of the Navy by President Tyler.

At the time of his appointment as head of the Navy Department preparations were under way for testing an enormous new gun just mounted on the steamer *Princeton.* An invited party, consisting of the President, members of the cabinet and a number of distinguished guests, were on board of the vessel. In front of Mount Vernon the gun was tested, exploding at the first fire, killing the Secretary of State, Mr. Upshur; the Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Gilmer, and several others. This fatal accident occurred just nine days after Mr. Gilmer had taken the oath as head of the Navy Department.

JOHN YOUNG MASON

JOHN Y. MASON—Secretary of the Navy from March 26, 1844, to March 10, 1845, and from September 10, 1846, to March 7, 1849; Attorney General from March 11, 1845, to September 9, 1846. Born in Greenesville, Virginia, April 18, 1799. Educated at University of North Carolina. Died in Paris, France, October 3, 1859.

1819—Member Virginia Legislature.
1828—Member Virginia Constitutional Convention.
1829—Judge of the Virginia Superior Court.
1831—Member national House of Representatives.
1837—Judge of the General Court of Virginia.
1844—Secretary of the Navy.
1845—Attorney General of the United States.
1846—Secretary of the Navy.
1849—Member Virginia Constitutional Convention.
1854—Minister to France.

After graduating from the University of North Carolina in 1816, Mr. Mason spent three years at the famous law school in Litchfield, Connecticut. He was admitted to the bar in 1819, beginning the practice at Hicksford, Virginia. He was almost immediately elected a member of the Virginia Legislature, serving until 1829 when he was appointed judge of the Virginia Superior Court. In 1831 he was elected to Congress as a Democrat, serving until January 11, 1837, when he resigned, having been elected judge of the Virginia General Court.

In 1844 he was made Secretary of the Navy to succeed Mr. Gilmer, who had been killed by an explosion of a gun on the steamer *Princeton.* He served until the beginning of the administration of President Polk when he was appointed Attorney General. He was returned to the Navy Department the next year. During his second administration as Secretary of the Navy he fitted out the exploring expedition to the Dead Sea, under command of Lieutenant Lynch, in 1847, an expedition that was very successful in every way.

He was appointed minister to France in 1854 by President Pierce. He was very successful as a diplomatic representative of the country. He died while holding his diplomatic office.

GEORGE BANCROFT

GEORGE BANCROFT—Secretary of the Navy from March 11, 1845, to September 9, 1846. Born in Worcester, Massachusetts, October 3, 1800. Son of Rev. Aaron Bancroft. Educated at Harvard College. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, January 17, 1891.

1845—Secretary of the Navy.
1846—Minister to England.

George Bancroft is better known as a writer of history than for any service in public office. He graduated from Harvard College in 1817

and went to Gottingen, Germany, to pursue his studies. He traveled extensively in Europe, meeting many of the prominent men in political and literary life. He returned to the United States in 1823 and became Greek tutor in Harvard College. He was elected to the Massachusetts Legislature in 1830, but declined to serve, and in 1844 was defeated as a candidate for governor of the state.

He was chosen for Secretary of the Navy by President Polk, and in that position established the Naval Academy at Annapolis. A school for the instruction of midshipmen had been in existence for several years at Philadelphia, but Secretary Bancroft secured an appropriation for a permanent establishment at Annapolis.

As Secretary of the Navy and in anticipation of a war with Mexico, Mr. Bancroft sent a fleet to the Pacific Coast, and through this action the United States was able to take possession of California. He resigned the navy portfolio to accept the mission to Great Britain.

During the session of Congress, 1865-66, Mr. Bancroft delivered before the two houses an oration and eulogy of the life of President Lincoln. He was a voluminous writer. His history of the United States has been the subject of much adverse criticism.

WILLIAM BALLARD PRESTON

WILLIAM B. PRESTON—Secretary of the Navy from March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850. Born at Smithfield, Virginia, November 25, 1805. Son of Governor James P. and Ann (Taylor) Preston. Educated at the University of Virginia. Married Miss Reid. Died in Smithfield, Virginia, November 16, 1862.

1847—Member national House of Representatives.
1849—Secretary of the Navy.
1861—Member of the Confederate Congress.

Mr. Preston came from a distinguished Virginia family. His father served as governor of the state and had held several other positions under the state. William B. was admitted to the bar in 1826 and for a number of years devoted himself closely to the practice of his profession. In 1847 he was elected as a Whig to Congress, serving one term. President Taylor appointed him Secretary of the Navy, which he held until President Fillmore reorganized his cabinet in July, 1850. Leaving the cabinet Mr. Preston devoted himself to the practice of his profession until 1861, when he was elected a member of the Confederate Congress.

WILLIAM ALEXANDER GRAHAM

WILLIAM A. GRAHAM—Secretary of the Navy from August 2, 1850, to June 28, 1852. Born in Lincoln county, North Carolina, September 5, 1804. Son of Joseph and Isabella (Davidson) Graham. Educated at the University of North Carolina. Married, in 1836, Miss Washington. Died at Saratoga Springs, New York, August 11, 1875.

1833—Member North Carolina Legislature.
1838—Speaker of North Carolina House of Representatives.
1840—Speaker of North Carolina House of Representatives.
1840—United States Senator.
1844—Governor of North Carolina.
1846—Governor of North Carolina.
1850—Secretary of the Navy.
1854—Member North Carolina Legislature.
1861—Member North Carolina Senate.
1863—Member Confederate Senate.

The father of Mr. Graham was counted one of the bravest soldiers of the Continental Army during the War of the Revolution. William studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1826. He soon established a high reputation as a lawyer. He was a Whig in politics and served in the state legislature from 1833 to 1840, when he was elected to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy. He was re-elected and served until he was appointed Secretary of the Navy.

His administration of the Navy Department was successful. In 1852 he was nominated by the Whigs for Vice President on the ticket with General Scott.

JOHN PENDLETON KENNEDY

JOHN P. KENNEDY—Secretary of the Navy from July 26, 1852, to March 7, 1853. Born in Baltimore, Maryland, October 25, 1795. Educated at Baltimore College. Died in Newport, Rhode Island, August 18, 1870.

1821—Member Maryland Legislature.
1838—Member national House of Representatives.
1841—Member national House of Representatives.
1852—Secretary of the Navy.

John P. Kennedy came from wealthy ancestors and received a liberal education, graduating from the Baltimore College in 1812. It was just at the beginning of the war with Great Britain and the young man joined a volunteer company. He took part in the battle of Bladensburg, which preceded the capture and burning of Washington, winning the commendation of his superior officers for his coolness and gallantry.

He was admitted to the bar in 1816, but devoted most of his time to literary pursuits. He was a Whig in politics. He was defeated for Congress in 1837, but was elected to the same Congress to fill a vacancy. In 1841 he was again elected to Congress, serving two terms.

In 1852, on the resignation of William A. Graham, President Fillmore appointed Mr. Kennedy as Secretary of the Navy, in which position he served during the remainder of the term of President Fillmore. During his short service as Secretary of the Navy, of a little more than seven months, Mr. Kennedy projected and set on foot two important

naval expeditions—one, that of Commodore M. C. Perry, which eventually opened to the world the doors of Japan, and the other, that of Dr. Elisha Kent Kane, to the polar regions. Mr. Kennedy is better known as an author than as a politician or statesman.

JOHN COCHRANE DOBBIN

JOHN C. DOBBIN—Secretary of the Navy from March 8, 1853, to March 6, 1857. Born in Fayetteville, North Carolina, in 1814. Educated at University of North Carolina. Died at Fayetteville, North Carolina, August 4, 1857.

1845—Member national House of Representatives.
1853—Secretary of the Navy.

Mr. Dobbin never became prominent in national politics. He served one session in Congress, but took little active part. After graduating from the University of North Carolina in 1832 he studied law, following his profession in his native town. Elected to Congress he declined a second term and returned to his law practice. He served as Secretary of the Navy during the administration of President Pierce, but without any great distinction.

During his administration of the Navy Department an affair occurred which brought severe criticism from several of the European powers. An effort was being made by some of the citizens of the United States to construct a railroad across the Isthmus of Panama. Some adventurers had set up what they termed an independent republic at Greytown. The Spanish name for the place was "Juan del Norte." The people of Greytown, urged on by the authorities, did many things to interfere with the construction of the proposed transit line and set up a claim to jurisdiction over that section. On two or three occasions trouble was narrowly averted, when finally the United States minister to Nicaragua visited Greytown in an effort to bring about a better state of feeling. While there a mob surrounded the house he was in and an effort was made to arrest him.

Matters went on from bad to worse and a number of raids were made from Greytown on Punta Arenas, a town occupied mostly by those engaged in constructing the railroad. A demand was made on the authorities at Greytown to repair the injuries they had done to American citizens and to apologize for the insult to the American minister. This was refused and the United States ship of war *Cyane* was ordered to enforce the demands. The commander did so by bombarding and destroying the town. Not many lives were lost, but the town itself was almost wholly destroyed. A year or two later both France and Great Britain presented claims against the United States for alleged damages occasioned to citizens of those countries by this bombardment. The correspondence between the United States and the two claiming countries was quite acrimonious at times, but finally resulted in a peaceable settlement.

ISAAC TOUCEY

ISAAC TOUCEY—Attorney General from June 29, 1848, to March 7, 1849; Secretary of the Navy from March 7, 1857, to March 6, 1861. Born in Newton, Fairfield county, Connecticut, November 5, 1796. Died in Hartford, Connecticut, July 30, 1869.

1822—States Attorney for Hartford county.
1835—Member national House of Representatives.
1837—Member national House of Representatives.
1842—States Attorney for Hartford county.
1845—Unsuccessful candidate for Governor of Connecticut.
1846—Elected Governor by the Legislature.
1847—Unsuccessful candidate for Governor of Connecticut.
1848—Attorney General of the United States.
1850—Member of Connecticut Senate.
1852—Member Connecticut House of Representatives.
1852—United States Senator.
1857—Secretary of the Navy.

Mr. Toucey was one of the last of the cabinet ministers born in the eighteenth century. He was born when the government was just getting a start under the Constitution. George Washington was President. He pursued classical studies and then entered upon the practice of the law, being admitted to the bar in 1818. As a lawyer he was a man of superior ability. So much so that after practicing only four years he was elected states attorney for Hartford county.

In politics he was an ardent follower of the Jeffersonian theories of government and took an active part in political work. He served as attorney for the state for two terms and then resumed the practice of law. In 1834 he was elected as a Democrat to Congress and re-elected for a second term, but was unsuccessful in his race for a third term. After serving out his term in Congress he was again made attorney for the state in Hartford county. In 1845, and again in 1846, he was a candidate for governor of the state, but each time was defeated before the people. The election being thrown into the legislature in 1846, he was chosen. In the next year he was again a candidate but again defeated.

In 1848 he was appointed Attorney General for the United States and served from June 29 of that year to the close of the Polk administration. In 1850 he was elected to the Senate of Connecticut and served one term and then followed a term in the State House of Representatives. In 1852 he was elected to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy. He served in the Senate until he entered President Buchanan's cabinet as Secretary of the Navy.

He served as head of the Navy Department at a time when the excitement over the slavery question was at its highest. He was charged with distributing the naval vessels in various parts of the world so as to make them difficult to be assembled when secession came and war followed. Retiring from the cabinet at the close of Buchanan's administration he resumed the practice of law at Hartford.

GIDEON WELLES

GIDEON WELLES—Secretary of the Navy from March 7, 1861, to March 3, 1869. Born at Glastonbury, Connecticut, July 1, 1802. Son of Samuel and Ann (Hale) Welles. Educated at Norwich (Vermont) University. Married, June 15, 1835, Miss Mary Jane Hale. Died at Hartford, Connecticut, February 11, 1875.

1836—Comptroller of Connecticut.
1837—Member Connecticut Legislature.
1838—Postmaster of Hartford.
1842—Comptroller of Connecticut.
1846—Chief of Bureau of Supplies, Navy Department.
1861—Secretary of the Navy.

Gideon Welles, the American Naval Secretary, was a descendant of Thomas Welles, treasurer of the Connecticut colony from 1639 to 1651 and governor of Connecticut from 1655 to 1658. Receiving a good preparatory education young Gideon entered the University at Norwich, Vermont, graduating with high honors. He had intended to study law but drifted into journalism, displaying more than ordinary ability as a vigorous political writer. He became one of the editors and owners of the Hartford *Times*, a connection which he continued for thirty years. The *Times* was the first paper in New England to advocate the nomination and election of General Jackson to the presidency.

Mr. Welles became the confidential adviser of President Jackson as to the distribution of patronage in Connecticut. He was an ardent Democrat, but when slavery became the absorbing issue he was one of those Democrats who opposed the extreme demands of the South. During the administration of President Pierce he took strong grounds, as a writer, against the doctrine that Congress possessed the power to extend slavery into the territories.

He continued to diverge more and more from the Democratic policy on the slavery question and when the Republican party was organized in 1855 he united with it and became its first candidate for governor of Connecticut, but was defeated at the polls. From that time until he followed President Johnson in his opposition to Congress over the reconstruction of the seceding states, Mr. Welles was regarded as one of the leaders of the Republican party in Connecticut.

In 1860 Mr. Welles was chairman of the Connecticut delegation to the Republican National Convention at Chicago and assisted in the nomination of Mr. Lincoln as the candidate for President. Although not its editor, he was a frequent editorial contributor during the campaign of 1860 to the Hartford *Evening Press*, the first Republican daily established in Connecticut. When Mr. Lincoln made up his cabinet he selected Mr. Welles for head of the Navy Department and he continued in that position through the administrations of Presidents

Lincoln and Johnson. In the controversies between President Johnson and Congress Secretary Welles stood steadfastly by the President.

During his administration of the Navy Department Secretary Welles was frequently the subject of severe adverse criticism by members of Congress and by the press, his critics failing to take into consideration the condition of the department and of the navy at the time he became head of the department. He really did a great work in building up the naval strength to meet the emergencies of the war. In 1861 the Navy Department was in a demoralized condition, largely due to the dissensions in the cabinet of President Buchanan. The few vessels then belonging to the naval strength were poorly equipped and were in sore need of all manner of supplies to make them efficient and they were scattered to all parts of the seas.

The sudden breaking out of the Civil War made a pressing demand for a large addition to the naval force; there was not time to build vessels and a resort was had to purchasing vessels already constructed and converting them for war purposes. In this direction Secretary Welles displayed great energy and efficiency. The large addition to the force and the resignation of a large number of officers from the Southern states added to the complexity and difficulties of the situation. It is to the credit of Secretary Welles that few mistakes were made in the selection of officers for the navy.

During the first year of his administration Secretary Welles purchased one hundred and thirty-six vessels and converted them into vessels of war. At the same time fifty-two vessels were built. During the continuance of the war the construction of two hundred and eight vessels was commenced and nearly all were completed and equipped; four hundred and eighteen vessels were purchased and converted. All these had to be officered and made ready for effective service.

Steam having displaced sails for naval vessels, Secretary Welles insistently urged that engineers should be trained in the Naval Academy. It was while Mr. Welles was Secretary of the Navy that the great change from wooden to steel, and armor-clad war vessels took place.

Secretary Welles drifted away from the Republican party and in 1872 supported Mr. Greeley for President against General Grant. During his service as head of the Navy Department he kept an elaborate diary which was published after his death.

ADOLPH EDWARD BORIE

ADOLPH E. BORIE—Secretary of the Navy from March 9, 1869, to June 25, 1869. Born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, November 25, 1809. Son of Joseph and Sophia (Beauveau) Borie. Educated at the University of Pennsylvania. Died in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, February 5, 1880.

1869—Secretary of the Navy.

Mr. Borie never held any public office except that of Secretary of the Navy for three months in the first administration of President Grant. The father of Mr. Borie was a Frenchman and a very successful merchant of Philadelphia. Through his wealth he was able to give his son superior advantages in the way of securing an education. Young Adolph graduated from the University of Pennsylvania at the age of sixteen years and continued his studies in Paris, France. Returning to the United States he entered upon a commercial career and later became a banker.

He accepted the position of Secretary of the Navy at the urgent solicitation of President Grant, but was compelled to relinquish the office within a few months by the press of his private business. Later he was one of the party that journeyed around the world with General Grant.

GEORGE MAXWELL ROBESON

GEORGE M. ROBESON—Secretary of the Navy from June 25, 1869, to March 12, 1877. Born in Oxford Furnace, New Jersey, in 1829. Son of William P. and Anna (Maxwell) Robeson. Educated at Princeton College. Married, January 23, 1872, Mary Isabella Avelick. Died in Trenton, New Jersey, September 27, 1897.

1867—Attorney General of New Jersey.
1869—Secretary of the Navy.
1879—Member national House of Representatives.

Graduating with distinguished honors from Princeton College in 1847 Mr. Robeson studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1850. He was active in political affairs first as a Whig and later as a Republican, and was serving as attorney general of the state of New Jersey when he was selected for Secretary of the Navy by President Grant.

At the outbreak of the Civil War Mr. Robeson was very active in raising and organizing troops and was given a commission as brigadier general.

Improvements in the art of shipbuilding for war vessels had moved with such rapidity that when Mr. Robeson became Secretary of the Navy the American navy was composed of vessels obsolete in construction and equipment. Congress from time to time appropriated money for repairs for old ships, but was chary about constructing new and modern vessels. There was a period when the relations between the United States and England, France and Spain were strained, and Secretary Robeson called attention of Congress that the Navy Department had been forced in order to maintain the service to resort to the subterfuge of rebuilding men-of-war under their old names and paying for the construction out of the money appropriated for "repairs." This subjected Secretary Robeson to severe criticism by members of Congress and his department was investigated by a congressional committee, but the Secretary was sustained by the committee.

In 1875 Secretary Robeson issued a circular authorizing the enlistment of a certain number of apprentices. This was a revival of a system that had its inception under the administration of Secretary Paulding and later by Secretary Welles. The object was to train up as apprentices American seamen who might become competent to command. This plan was embodied in a law of Congress enacted at the suggestion of Secretary John D. Long.

RICHARD WIGGINTON THOMPSON

RICHARD W. THOMPSON—Secretary of the Navy from March 13, 1877, to December 20, 1880. Born in Culpeper county, Virginia, June 9, 1809. Academic education. Died in Terre Haute, Indiana, February 9, 1900.

1836—Member Indiana House of Representatives.
1838—Member Indiana Senate.
1841—Member national House of Representatives.
1847—Member national House of Representatives.
1867—Judge of the Fifth Indiana Circuit Court.
1877—Secretary of the Navy.

After receiving a classical education Mr. Thompson, in 1831, removed from Virginia to Louisville, Kentucky, securing a position as a clerk in a store. He did not remain there long, but went to Bedford, Indiana, to teach school. When not engaged in his school duties he clerked in one of the Bedford stores. In the store was a copy of the statutes of Indiana and in leisure time Mr. Thompson read the book and thus became enamored of the law. An opportunity offering he studied law and in 1834 was admitted to the bar.

His success was immediate, chiefly owing to his eloquence before a jury. By the time he was thirty years old he had won the sobriquet of the "Silver Tongue," a title he retained until his death. In politics he was a Whig and was counted as one of the chief orators of the party. In the exciting campaign of 1840 he was an elector on the Harrison ticket and canvassed Indiana and Kentucky. The next year he was elected to Congress, serving but one term, being defeated for reelection.

In 1847 he was again sent to Congress and was one of the leading Whigs of the thirtieth Congress. President Taylor offered him the Austrian mission, which he declined. Returning to Indiana at the close of his congressional term Mr. Thompson devoted himself to the practice of his profession, but continued to take an active part in every political campaign. On the organization of the Republican party he united with it and was a delegate to every national convention of that party from 1860 to 1896. He won fame as a platform writer.

He served as Secretary of the Navy for nearly the full term of President Hayes when he resigned to accept the chairmanship of the American Committee of the Panama Canal Company. His administration of the Navy Department was not characterized by any notable event. Mr. Thompson wrote two works which brought him some reputation. One was on the "Papacy and the Civil Power" and the other was the "History of the Tariff."

NATHAN GOFF

NATHAN GOFF—Secretary of the Navy from January 7, 1881, to March 7, 1881. Born in Clarksburg, Virginia (now West Virginia), February 9, 1843. Educated at the University of the City of New York.

1867—Member West Virginia Legislature.
1868—United States Attorney for West Virginia.
1881—Secretary of the Navy.
1881—United States Attorney for West Virginia.
1883—Member national House of Representatives.
1892—United States Judge of the Fourth Circuit.
1913—United States Senator.

Mr. Goff was but eighteen years old when the Civil War broke out. He was strongly opposed to secession and enlisted in the Union Army, serving with distinction and reaching the rank of major. At the close of the war he completed his legal studies and was admitted to the bar in 1865. He was active in political matters and in 1867 was elected a member of the West Virginia Legislature.

He was regarded as one of the leaders of the Republican party in West Virginia and was twice nominated for Congress and once for governor, but was defeated each time. In 1868 he was appointed United States attorney and was holding that position when he was called into the cabinet by President Hayes about two months before the close of his administration. He was again appointed United States attorney, resigning when he was elected to Congress in 1863. He served in Congress six years. President Harrison appointed him judge of the Fourth Circuit, an office he resigned in 1913 when he was elected to the United States Senate.

WILLIAM HENRY HUNT

WILLIAM H. HUNT—Secretary of the Navy from March 7, 1881, to April 16, 1882. Born in Charleston, South Carolina, in 1824. Son of Thomas and Louisa (Gaillard) Hunt. Educated at Yale College. Died in St. Petersburg, Russia, February 27, 1884.

1876—Attorney General of Louisiana.
1878—Judge of United States Court of Claims.
1881—Secretary of the Navy.
1882—Minister to Russia.

Mr. Hunt was descended from one of the prominent families of South Carolina. The family were among those who opposed the radical states rights theories of Mr. Calhoun. They removed to Louisiana. After graduating from Yale Mr. Hunt studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1845, and began practicing his profession in New Orleans, Louisiana.

During the Civil War he was an adherent of the Union cause and after the war closed he united with the Republican party. He was appointed Secretary of the Navy by President Garfield and remained in office for some months during the administration of President Arthur.

His administration of the Navy Department was vigorous. He organized an advisory board to devise suitable measures for increasing the efficiency of the navy. He did not remain long enough in the department to carry out all the improvements he inaugurated. He died while minister to Russia.

WILLIAM EATON CHANDLER

WILLIAM E. CHANDLER—Secretary of the Navy from April 17, 1882, to March 6, 1885. Born in Concord, New Hampshire, December 26, 1835. Son of Nathan S. and Mary Ann (Tucker) Chandler. Academic education.

1859—Reporter Decisions of New Hampshire Supreme Court.
1862—Member New Hampshire Legislature.
1865—Solicitor and Judge Advocate General Navy Department.
1865—First Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.
1876—Member New Hampshire Constitutional Convention.
1881—Member New Hampshire Legislature.
1882—Secretary of the Navy.
1887—United States Senator.
1901—President Spanish Claims Commission.

Mr. Chandler has sometimes been spoken of as the "father of the modern navy of the United States." After securing an academic education he entered the law department of Yale College and was graduated from that department in 1854 and the next year was admitted to the bar. He took an active interest in politics, serving three terms in the New Hampshire Legislature, being speaker of the House during the last two years. In March, 1865, he was made solicitor and judge advocate general of the Navy Department, but resigned in a short time to become First Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

Returning to New Hampshire in 1877 he resumed the practice of his profession. When Secretary of the Navy Hunt resigned in 1882, President Arthur appointed Mr. Chandler his successor. The Secretary was very energetic in his efforts to upbuild the navy. In 1881-82 and in 1882-83 Congress ordered the construction of three steel cruisers and one steel despatch boat. This was the nucleus of the present modern navy. Secretary Chandler was urgent that Congress encourage the es-

tablishment of an armor plant in this country. He was compelled to place contracts for armor and forgings in foreign countries, and he pointed out the precariousness of such dependence should the country be involved in war.

He established the Navy Advisory Board and adopted the plans prepared by it for the construction of new vessels. The Secretary brought into existence, without the authority of Congress, the naval war college. In May, 1884, he organized a board of officers to report upon a post-graduate course for officers of the navy. The board reported in favor of such a course, and the war college of the navy was established. He also established a Board of Naval Intelligence and a Gun Foundry Board.

Mr. Chandler seemed to have been gifted with foresight of what was soon to come in relation to navies and naval warfare. He was not in favor of building mammoth dreadnoughts at the cost of millions, being convinced they would, in the near future become obsolete through the introduction of new methods and new instruments of warfare. On one occasion he said:

> . I am strongly inclined to think that, under twentieth century conditions, two or three comparatively small fighting vessels, powerfully armed and very speedy, may do much more execution and accomplish much more effective results than one huge floating fortress. One trouble about modern ships is that they are apt to be obsolete by the time they are finished, and a few years hence we may find our boasted sea fighters relegated to rust in the navy yards alongside of the old wooden frigates. * * * The use of the torpedo in naval warfare will be greatly developed in the course of the next fifty years. Of the employment of torpedo boats I have always been a strong advocate; but the lessons of recent history point to the conclusion that small craft of this kind are too vulnerable to be of much practical service unless for scouting duty or to steal upon an unsuspecting foe at night. * * * The ship of the future will possess an astonishing activity, traversing immense distances at a high rate of speed and with a small consumption of fuel.
>
> If my theory is correct the armored ship of the twentieth century will be regarded like the mail-clad fighting man, as a relic of the past, and the war vessel will take its chances in conflict just as the soldier does to day.

In 1887 Mr. Chandler was elected to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy and served until March 3, 1901. In the Senate Mr. Chandler was a strong advocate of the interests of the navy and was regarded as the senatorial champion of the navy. In 1901 President McKinley appointed him president of the Spanish Claims Commission.

After leaving the Senate Mr. Chandler made his home in Washington, District of Columbia.

WILLIAM COLLINS WHITNEY

WILLIAM C. WHITNEY—Secretary of the Navy from March 7, 1885, to March 5, 1889. Born in Conway, Massachusetts, July 5, 1841. Son of James Scollay and Laurinda (Collins) Whitney. Educated at Yale College. Married, in 1869, Flora Payne.

1885—Secretary of the Navy.

Mr. Whitney was descended from a long line of distinguished ancestry in Massachusetts on both sides. His mother was a direct descendant of the famous Colonial Governor Bradford. His ancestors on his father's side were long prominent in the affairs of the colony and state and his father was one of the leading men of Massachusetts.

William C. was educated at Yale College, graduating in 1863. He then took a course of law at Harvard University. When ready to enter upon the active practice of his profession he located in the city of New York and very soon became prominent both as a lawyer and as a politician. In 1871 he was active in organizing the Young Men's Democratic Club of New York and in 1872 became a leader of the county wing of the Democratic party opposed to the domination of Tammany.

In 1873 he was made corporation counsel and distinguished himself by reorganizing that important branch of the city government and for the vigor he displayed in expediting the public business. He held this position for nine years, resigning in 1882, with a record for efficiency such as had been enjoyed by none of his predecessors.

He was a warm friend of Mr. Cleveland, and took an active part in securing for him the nomination for President in 1884. When Mr. Cleveland, as President, selected his cabinet he chose Mr. Whitney for the Navy Department. In his first report as Secretary of the Navy Mr. Whitney proposed a plan for the entire reorganization of the department, which he was enabled to put in force. He found that large private purchases were made by the bureau chiefs where the law intended that contracts, after due public competition, should be awarded. He found that much of the business of the department was controlled by brokers; seven bureaus, acting independently of one another, purchased coal; eight bureaus purchased stationery; six bought lumber and hardware; and seven bought oils. He found also that eight bureaus supplied ships with stationery and three furnished lamps and lanterns.

Secretary Whitney consolidated the business of conducting purchases in the Bureau of Provisions and Clothing and made the paymaster general responsible therefor. He established a general storekeeping system among his other administrative reforms. Secretary Whitney displayed great vigor in pushing forward plans for a greater navy and superintended the construction of a number of vessels of war upon the most modern models. Secretary Whitney refused to place contracts for armor and forgings with foreign firms, and by embracing in one contract all the armor and gun steel authorized by the two preceding Congresses, he induced the Bethlehem Iron Works to build a plant for the manufacture of armor plates and gun steel forgings.

Secretary Whitney was also largely instrumental in the establishment in this country of a plant for the manufacture of small guns for the navy. Under his administration of the Navy Department the

United States came abreast of the times in the number and efficiency of its naval equipments. Retiring from the cabinet at the close of the administration of President Cleveland, Mr. Whitney returned to New York, where he became connected with numerous large business enterprises.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN TRACY

BENJAMIN F. TRACY—Secretary of the Navy from March 6, 1889, to March 6, 1893. Born in Owego, New York, April 26, 1830. Son of Benjamin Tracy. Educated at Owego Academy. Married, in 1851, Delinda E. Catlin. Died in New York city, August 6, 1915.

1861—Member New York Legislature.
1866—United States Attorney for Eastern New York District.
1881—Associate Justice of the New York Court of Appeals.
1889—Secretary of the Navy.

Mr. Tracy was admitted to the bar in 1851 and at once took a place among the leading practitioners. He was a member of the New York Legislature at the outbreak of the Civil War, and in 1862 personally recruited two regiments of volunteers for the service. He was appointed colonel of the one hundred and ninth New York regiment and with it took a prominent part in the campaigns of the Army of the Potomac. In 1864 he was made colonel of the one hundred and twenty-seventh colored regiment and assigned to duty at Elmira, New York, his command including the prison for Confederate soldiers. After the war a severe attack was made on his administration of the prison by a Southern member of Congress, an attack that created quite a controversy, the charges being refuted by the testimony of Confederate soldiers who had been confined there at the time.

After the close of the war Mr. Tracy resumed the practice of his profession, rising to the head of the bar of New York city. He was engaged in many of the noted cases before the courts of New York, among them being the famous Tilton-Beecher case. He was prominently connected with the prosecution of the Tweed ring. While acting as United States Attorney for the District of Eastern New York he drafted a bill to regulate the collection of the tax on distilled spirits that was passed by Congress, resulting in increasing the revenue from that source in one year from thirteen to fifty million dollars.

As Secretary of the Navy Mr. Tracy introduced a number of reforms. He carried out the policy of reformation introduced by Secretary Whitney in regard to the purchase of supplies, and extended the scope of the reformation in this direction. He said in his report of 1889 that the details of administering the navy, its vessels in commission, its officers and crews, were scattered without system or coherence among a variety of offices, bureaus and boards. The assignment of officers to duty and the movements of ships in commission were in charge of an "office of detail," at the head of which was the chief of the Bureau of

Navigation, which bureau was at the same time supplying compasses, chronometers and navigating instruments, libraries and other miscellaneous articles. The enlistment and assignment of seamen belonged to a bureau that also had in charge the manufacture of cordage, chains and anchors. There were a number of other branches of the details of the service scattered around among various bureaus. To the eradication of all these defects Secretary Tracy devoted his attention and systematized the departmental work so as to make it cohesive.

He organized the Board of Construction to which was given the general supervision over the design, construction and equipment of ships. He found that in the various navy yards the "spoils system" prevailed. This he eliminated and made merit the basis of employment and promotion. He reported to Congress that the necessities of the vulnerable position of the United States demanded the construction and maintenance of two fleets of battleships, one of eight vessels to be assigned to the Pacific and one of twelve vessels to the Atlantic and the Gulf coasts. The Bethlehem Iron Works had agreed to begin the delivery or armor in 1889, but failed to do so. This threatened to cause a delay in the completion of ships under construction. Secretary Tracy promptly gave a contract for six thousand tons of armor to the Carnegie and Phipps Company, with the understanding that they should immediately establish a plant.

When it was reported to the Navy Department that the steamer *Itata,* loaded with arms intended for the revolutionists in Chile, had sailed away from the United States, carrying a deputy United States marshal who had been placed in charge of the ship, Secretary Tracy immediately ordered the cruiser *Charleston* to pursue and capture the runaway vessel, which was done.

When the seal question in the Bering Sea was agitating the cabinet of President Harrison, it was Secretary Tracy who advanced the theory that the United States had a property right in the seals, a theory that was made a part of the claim of the United States in its controversy with Great Britain and Canada.

On February 23, 1890, the residence of Secretary Tracy, in Washington, was destroyed by fire, the wife and daughter of the Secretary losing their lives.

After leaving the cabinet Mr. Tracy returned to the practice of his profession. At the age of eighty-three years he appeared as one of the counsel for Governor Sulzer, of New York, in his impeachment trial.

HILLARY ABNER HERBERT.

HILLARY A. HERBERT—Secretary of the Navy from March 7, 1893, to March 5, 1897. Born in Laurensville, South Carolina, March 12, 1834. Son of Thomas E. and Dorothy Teague (Young) Herbert. Educated at the University of Virginia. Married, April 23, 1867, Ella B. Smith.

1877—Member national House of Representatives.
1893—Secretary of the Navy.

In 1846 Mr. Herbert removed from South Carolina to Greeneville, Alabama. He attended for a time the University of Alabama and later the University of Virginia, graduating in 1856. He studied law and on being admitted to the bar began the practice at Greeneville. At the outbreak of the Civil War Mr. Herbert entered the Confederate Army as a captain. He was later promoted to the colonelcy of a regiment. At the battle of the Wilderness he was disabled and returned to the practice of his profession. In 1872 he removed to Montgomery. In 1876 he was elected, as a Democrat, to Congress and re-elected to the seven succeeding Congresses.

In Congress Mr. Herbert was a steady advocate of economy in public expenditures and of keeping the naval strength of the country equal to the demands of peace and security.

As Secretary of the Navy Mr. Herbert vigorously and firmly continued the policy of reform began by his predecessor of eliminating the spoils system from the navy yards. In 1894 Secretary Herbert issued a general order charging the Bureau of Construction and Repair with the responsibility for the design, structural strength and stability of vessels built for the navy. This order was important, as it enabled the department to hold a single officer responsible for the success or failure of a ship.

The possibility of a rupture with Spain existed during the closing year of the administration of President Cleveland and Secretary Herbert took precautionary measures in Asiastic waters. His foresight thus enabled the administration of President McKinley to promptly open hostilities in the East when war with Spain was declared. The necessity of an increased navy was thus urged by him upon Congress:

> The gigantic naval preparations made and making in Europe sufficiently indicate, especially if Great Britain be involved in it, that the next great European maritime struggle will be as desperate as were the long wars of the Napoleonic era. Like those it will be a war for national existence. Commerce will henceforth be even more essential to the British Isles than it was then; for with their increased population they could not long subsist without imported food. It is idle to say that the rules of international law are more humane, or that they are better understood, or that they are better protected by treaties than they were a hundred years ago. The rights of neutrals have depended in the past, and will depend in the future, in every life and death struggle between nations, whatever treaties may say, upon the exigencies of the hour.
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> All naval powers have now prepared themselves with commerce destroyers. The moment these are turned loose the commerce of all the warring nations will seek the protection of some neutral power, which means it will come under our flag. To illustrate, the Confederate cruisers were few in number. They destroyed altogether only about one hundred and seventy-five vessels, most of them sailing ships, and many of small value; and yet these few enemies drove more than seven hundred American ships to the British flag, many of them never to come back.

It is no sufficient answer to say that in 1810 we were seven millions, that now we are seventy millions; that our resources for the upbuilding of a great navy are second to none in the world, and that therefore our rights would be respected. Our naval and military prestige and our wonderful physical and material resources are no doubt quite sufficient to cause any statesman not under stress of some controlling necessity to think twice before provoking us to war; but who can believe that, in the midst of a desperate struggle, any great naval power would, for fear of retribution at some future day, imperil its existence by taking account of the rights of a neutral power which was for the time being unable to maintain them? If America is to profit by the lessons of the past, she will always have on hand a navy which can, at the moment when it is needed, take care of itself and of all the commerce which may at any time be or desire to be under our flag. This does not mean that we need a maritime force as large as that of Great Britain, or even of France; but it does mean that our navy should always be so formidable that no power could ever deem it wise, even for a moment, to offend against the rights of our flag upon the seas.

Had this advice of Secretary Herbert been followed the probabilities are we would not have become involved in the great World War a few years later.

JOHN DAVIS LONG

JOHN D. LONG—Secretary of the Navy from March 6, 1897, to April 30, 1902. Born in Buckfield, Maine, October 27, 1838. Educated at Harvard College. Died at Hingham, Massachusetts, August 28, 1915.

1875—Member Massachusetts Legislature.
1879—Lieutenant Governor of Massachusetts.
1880—Governor of Massachusetts.
1883—Member national House of Representatives.
1897—Secretary of the Navy.

"War has commenced between the United States and Spain. Proceed at once to Philippine Islands. Begin operations at once, particularly against the Spanish fleet. You must capture vessels or destroy. Use utmost endeavors."

This was the order sent to Commodore Dewey, at Hongkong, China, on April 24, 1898, an order more replete with momentous consequences than any other order issued to an American fleet. It sent Commodore Dewey to Manila and to one of the greatest naval victories recorded in history. It was issued by John D. Long, Secretary of the Navy in the cabinet of President McKinley.

John Davis Long was born in Buckfield, Maine. At an early age he displayed great assiduity in the pursuit of knowledge. At the age of fourteen years he entered Harvard College, graduating in 1857, second in his class. He was the author of the class ode on that occasion. Leaving college he was for two years principal of the Westford Academy. Determining upon the profession of law he entered Harvard Law School and was admitted to the bar in 1861. He first opened an office in his native town in Maine, but in 1863 removed to Boston, Massachusetts, and later to Hingham in that state.

He took great interest in political matters, and in 1874 was elected a member of the Massachusetts House of Representatives and was twice re-elected. In his last term he was elected speaker with but six votes against him. In 1879 he was elected governor of the state and twice re-elected, each time with a largely increased plurality. In 1883 he became a member of the national House of Representatives, serving until March 3, 1889. In Congress he was regarded as one of the most polished debaters of the House.

In 1897 he was made Secretary of the Navy by President McKinley. Into that department he threw fresh energy. The government was engaged in the construction of modern vessels of war and the securing of armor plates was a serious question. Congress had limited the price to three hundred dollars per ton. Three battleships were then building. There were but two firms in this country provided with plants requisite to make the armor and they declined to submit a bid on the ground they could not make the plate at the price fixed by Congress.

The act fixing the price to be paid provided that the Secretary of the Navy should appoint a board to prepare plans and estimates for an armor plant. This was done and a report was submitted which fixed the cost of establishing such a plant at four million dollars. Secretary Long deemed it unwise for the United States to embark in an industry which was then filled by individual firms, and he believed that the cost of material made under governmental supervision would, in reality, be higher than that turned out by private manufacturers. Congress was induced to increase the price to four hundred dollars per ton.

Secretary Long, to induce bidders, grouped the armor for thirteen vessels in one proposal but, notwithstanding the large amount, the lowest bid was far in excess of the Congress limit. To get out of the difficulty Congress finally left the whole matter to the Secretary of the Navy. The amount of armor needed was thirty-seven thousand tons and the Secretary was able to make contracts on very reasonable terms.

Secretary Long was also a firm believer in the project of training naval apprentices, and during his administration of the department he appointed a board to prepare plans for the reorganization of the schools and established at the Island of Yerba Buena, in San Francisco Bay, a modern training school. He secured the passage by Congress of a law permitting the commissioning of enlisted men promoted from apprentices.

The war with Spain threw a heavy burden on the navy. During its existence Secretary Long purchased ninety-seven merchantmen and transformed them into auxiliary cruisers, gun boats and colliers. He infused the whole department with energy, and thus Admirals Dewey, Sampson and Schley were kept constantly supplied with all that was needed to make a success of the work appointed to them.

After leaving the cabinet Mr. Long returned to Hingham and employed a part of his time in writing the story of "The New American Navy," a work of two volumes.

WILLIAM HENRY MOODY

WILLIAM HENRY MOODY—Secretary of the Navy from May 1, 1902, to July 1, 1904; Attorney General from July 1, 1904, to December 12, 1906. Born at Newberry, Massachusetts, December 23, 1853. Son of Henry L. and Melissa Augusta (Emerson) Moody. Educated at Phillips Academy and Harvard College.

1888—City Attorney of Haverhill.
1890—United States Attorney for Eastern District of Massachusetts.
1895—Member national House of Representatives.
1902—Secretary of the Navy.
1904—Attorney General of the United States.
1906—Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.

Mr. Moody soon became known as an attorney of rare ability and commanded a lucrative practice. He was made city attorney for his native city, and so distinguished himself in that capacity that two years later he was appointed United States Attorney for the Eastern District of Massachusetts, which office he held until he was elected to Congress in 1905 to fill a vacancy. He was elected for a second, third and fourth term, finally resigning to accept the place of Secretary of the Navy in 1902. Two years later he was transferred to the Department of Justice, and in 1906 he was appointed an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court. In 1910 he was retired by special act of Congress on account of ill health.

As Attorney General his decisions and rulings were regarded as among the ablest given by the department.

PAUL MORTON

PAUL MORTON—Secretary of the Navy from July 1, 1904, to July 1, 1905. Born in Detroit, Michigan, May 22, 1858. Son of J. Sterling and Caroline (Joy) Morton. Educated in the common schools. Married, October 13, 1880, Miss Charlotte Goodrich. Died in New York city, January 19, 1911.

1904—Secretary of the Navy.

At an early age he entered the employ of the Burlington Railroad as a clerk in one of its offices. In 1899 he engaged for a few years in the coal and iron business, but returned to the transportation lines again. He became third vice president of the Santa Fe line and then second vice president of the same. In railroad circles he was regarded as a man of high business attainments. The only public office he ever held was that of Secretary of the Navy in the cabinet of President Roosevelt. He served but one year and then returned to private life.

As head of the Navy Department he had but little opportunity to display any special talent in that direction. It was at a time when the great talk in Congress was about modernizing our navy, and as there

was apparent peace throughout the world there was much agitation among the people about the necessity of making large reduction in the expenditures for army and navy service.

Mr. Morton's father served as Secretary of Agriculture in the second administration of President Cleveland.

VICTOR HOWARD METCALF

VICTOR HOWARD METCALF—Secretary of Commerce and Labor from July 1, 1904, to December 11, 1906; Secretary of the Navy from December 12, 1906, to November 30, 1908. Born in Utica, New York, October 10, 1852. Son of William and Sarah P. Metcalf. Educated at Yale College. Married, April 11, 1882, Miss Emily Corinne Nicholson.

1899—Member national House of Representatives.
1904—Secretary of Commerce and Labor.
1906—Secretary of the Navy.

In 1876 Mr. Metcalf was graduated from the Yale Law School. He at once began the practice in Utica. Two years later he removed to California, locating in Oakland. His first public office was that of Representative in Congress, where he served three terms. Just before the close of his third term he was tendered the position as Secretary of Commerce and Labor, to follow Secretary Cortelyou, who had been transferred to the Postoffice Department. When this tender was made he resigned his seat in the House of Representatives to accept the new place. In 1906 he was transferred to the Navy Department, serving until November 30, 1908. It was while he was at the head of the department it was determined to send the Atlantic fleet on a cruise of the Pacific, a cruise that started both in this country and in Europe a thousand speculations as to what it meant.

TRUMAN HENRY NEWBERRY

TRUMAN HENRY NEWBERRY—Secretary of the Navy from December 1, 1908, to March 5, 1909. Born in Detroit, Michigan, November 5, 1864. Son of John S. and Helen Parmelee (Handy) Newberry. Educated at Yale College. Married, February 7, 1888, Miss Harriet Josephine Barnes.

1898—Commander, United States Navy.
1907—Lieutenant Commander, United States Navy.
1908—Secretary of the Navy.
1909—United States Senator.

Immediately after being graduated from college Mr. Newberry engaged in numerous business enterprises in Detroit, making for himself a reputation as a man of large business capacity. He also took great interest in all things connected with the growth of Detroit and for good municipal government. A man of great energy and full of

vigorous health he seemed to never weary although his business interests were diversified.

He was one of the organizers of the Michigan State Naval Brigade, and this brought him to the notice of the government at Washington. In 1898 he was made a commander in the United States Navy and served with distinguished credit during the war with Spain. In December, 1908, he was called to the head of the Department of the Navy by President Roosevelt. It was just as President Roosevelt's administration was drawing to a close and Mr. Newberry had little opportunity to distinguish himself in this branch of the public service.

In 1909 he was elected to the United States Senate after a most bitter campaign. Charges were at once made that a large sum of money had been used to secure him the nomination and later his election. These charges formed the subject of a lengthy investigation by a committee of the Senate, which resulted in his favor. An indictment was found against him by the courts of Michigan, resulting in his acquittal. Senator Newberry, however, feeling worn out by the long struggle finally resigned his seat in the Senate.

JOSEPHUS DANIELS

JOSEPHUS DANIELS—Secretary of the Navy from March 5, 1913, to March 4, 1921. Born at Washington, North Carolina, May 18, 1862. Son of Josephus and Mary (Cleves) Daniels. Educated at Wilston Collegiate Institute, Wilston, North Carolina. Married, May 2, 1888, Miss Addie W. Bagley.

1887—State Printer for North Carolina.
1893—Chief Clerk, Department of the Interior.
1913—Secretary of the Navy.

When in his young manhood it came time for Mr. Daniels to choose a profession he selected that of newspaper work. He became owner and editor of a paper in his native town, and from that advanced to the ownership of the Charleston *News and Observer,* a paper he made exceedingly influential in the political affairs of the state. A trenchant writer his paper never lacked for readers. Journalism and politics are twins. No newspaper writer can keep out of political life to some extent. This does not mean office-holding, for thousands of able editors have never held any public office. As a rule they are not office-seekers but they are deeply interested in political matters. Mr. Daniels was one of this class. When Mr. Cleveland followed Mr. Harrison in the White House Mr. Daniels was appointed chief clerk of the Department of the Interior. This brought him into connection with the official public at Washington and he made many warm friends among them.

He was among the first and warmest of the supporters of Governor Wilson for the presidential nomination of his party, and when success

crowned the campaign in 1912 he was practically sure of a prominent place in the administration. The place given him was that of Secretary of the Navy. When he assumed that office neither he nor his chief dreamed that he was to head that department during a war which should shake the political foundations of the world. The war came. Our navy was modern as modernism was then known, but it was not as strong as that of some other nations.

Submarines were just being developed and the United States had taken little interest in that direction. Torpedoes were also among the things of the future. All this had to be developed during the administration of Secretary Daniels.

The war came. Battleships were to be prepared to unite with those of England and France; our commerce on the seas had to be protected; immense armies had to be transported and guarded across the Atlantic. Such a burden had never fallen upon any previous head of the Navy Department. Mr. Daniels served until the close of President Wilson's second term, when he returned to his editorial desk.

EDWIN DENBY

EDWIN DENBY—Secretary of the Navy from March 6, 1921, to March 10, 1924. Born at Evansville, Indiana, February 18, 1870. Son of Charles and Martha (Fitch) Denby. Educated at Michigan University. Married, March 18, 1911, Miss Marion Bartlett Thurber.

1903—Member Michigan House of Representatives.
1905—Member national House of Representatives.
1921—Secretary of the Navy.

Secretary Denby was of distinguished parentage. His father was long prominent in Indiana civil and political affairs, serving for a number of years as United States minister to China. His mother was a daughter of Graham N. Fitch, at one time a member of the United States Senate and later a colonel of volunteers in the Civil War.

Edwin having studied law began the practice in Detroit, establishing a reputation as a sound and able advocate. He accompanied his father to China and there entered the customs service of China under Sir Robert Hart. This connection he maintained for ten years. Returning to the United States he resumed the practice of his profession in Detroit. In 1904 he was elected a representative in Congress and was twice re-elected. At the close of this service he again resumed the practice of his profession. When Mr. Harding became President he invited Mr. Denby to enter his cabinet as Secretary of the Navy.

The great war with Germany had just closed and many perplexing questions were before the administration of President Harding, among them being a remodeling of the navy or, rather, the modernizing of our navy. The question of disarmament by all nations was also before the various governments of Europe as well as before the United States.

Two new elements had entered into naval warfare—undersea vessels and aeroplanes. With the entry of these two new elements the battleships and armed cruisers of all nations were practically obsolete, but there was a determined cry of the people for a reduction of all war preparations. Secretary Denby applied himself to a movement in favor of a further development of the submarine branch of the service and to the adoption of aeroplanes. While he was thus engaged charges were made in the Senate that there had been gross mismanagement if not open corruption in perfecting certain leases of naval oil reserves. A committee of the Senate began investigation and the matter was taken before the courts. By the latter it was declared that Secretary Denby was innocent of any wrong-doing in the matter. He felt, however, that the persistence of the charges were embarrassing to the administration of President Coolidge and on March 10, 1924, he resigned his office.

CURTIS D. WILBUR

CURTIS D. WILBUR—Secretary of the Navy from March 19, 1924. Born in Boonesboro, Louisiana, May 10, 1867. Son of Dwight Locke and Edna Maria (Lyman) Wilbur. Educated at the United States Naval Academy. Married, January 13, 1898, Miss Olive Doolittle.

1899—Chief Deputy District Attorney of Los Angeles.
1903—Judge of the Superior Court of Los Angeles.
1913—Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of California.
1922—Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of California.
1924—Secretary of the Navy.

The ambition of the future Secretary of the Navy did not turn toward a life in the naval service of the country, but toward the law, and he entered the naval school at Annapolis filled with the intention of making the education obtained there a stepping stone to a later study of law. As a cadet at Annapolis young Wilbur was noted in all athletic contests.

In the late eighties the full course at the Naval Academy covered six years' work. The cadets spent four years at Annapolis. Then they went to sea in active service for two years. At the termination of service trials they returned to the institution and took their final examinations. However, there were always more graduates than there were available positions in the United States Navy. Hence it was always customary to give honorable discharge and one year's advance pay to any of the cadets who wished to return to civilian life at the end of their four years' schooling. Curtis Wilbur wished to study law, and elected to abandon a seafaring life in our national naval service for that purpose.

In 1888 young Wilbur settled in Riverside, California, where his parents then lived. He secured a position teaching school and studied law at night. After two years of earnest work he passed the state bar ex-

Chas Dewey

amination, removed to Los Angeles and began the active practice of law. His success was rapid and remarkable.

Ultimately he was elevated to the bench in Los Angeles, and finally was elected to the California Supreme Court. He was chief justice of the California Supreme Court at the time when President Calvin Coolidge honored him with appointment to a cabinet office.

For many years Judge Wilbur was interested keenly in juvenile cases. In fact, he has specialized in that work. He was associated with Ben Lindsey. A summer camp which he maintains in the mountains near Los Angeles has long been a delight to California boys. Judge Wilbur made a practice of entertaining the boys at the camp every summer.

Chief Justice Wilbur resigned from the court when asked to enter the cabinet of President Coolidge as Secretary of the Navy. He entered upon the discharge of his duties with zest, for he loved the navy notwithstanding he had retired from that line of government service. The world, or at least several of the great nations were anxious for a limitation of armament both on land and sea, and a new development in offensive or defensive warfare was occupying the government forces in all the great nations—ships of war in the air.

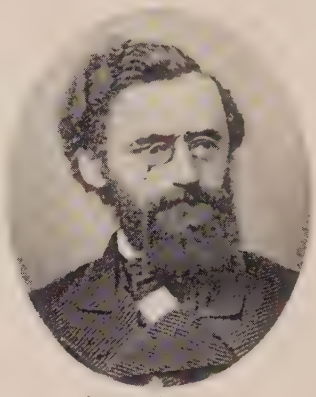
Aviation and its opportunities in defense or as a material adjunct to the other armed forces in time of war was a principal part of the study of Secretary Wilbur after taking hold of the Department of the Navy. On this subject he said:

> In considering the question of protection against aircraft it should be borne in mind that invulnerability is an unattainable ideal. Ships can undoubtedly be built that will bear greater punishment from aircraft attack than ships of the present day, and experience will improve the effectiveness of the ship's guns against aircraft. It is unreasonable to suppose, however, that either the active or the passive defense of a surface vessel can be made fully effective, and it must be accepted that ships can be sunk by aircraft as it has already been accepted that they can be sunk by torpedoes or by gunfire. Aircraft are, however, available for defense as well as for attack, and are necessary for both purposes in a modern fleet.

In concluding his report for 1924 the Secretary said:

> The navy is a great asset to the nation in peace as well as in war, and I can not but believe, sir, that the American navy is a great asset to all the nations of the world as a guarantee of peace and order. This is not accomplished by fighting, or by threats, or hostility, but by the mere existence of this great navy under the control of a nation dedicated to the maintenance of peace on the Western hemisphere and committed to the maintenance of world peace.

ZACHARIAH CHANDLER



CARL SCHURZ

THOMAS EWING

HOKE SMITH

FRANKLIN K. LANE

The Department of the Interior

In 1848 Robert J. Walker, Secretary of the Treasury, in his report to Congress called attention to the enormous amount of work devolved upon his department and the diverse nature of the duties performed by the Secretary, some of them having no connection with commerce or the public finances. He also pointed out that the State Department had no proper connection with the work of the Patent Office and that Indian affairs and applications for pensions could be better handled elsewhere than in the War and Navy Departments. He recommended the establishment of a new department and that all the activities named be placed under it.

The matter was referred to the House Committee on Agriculture. The committee reported in favor of creating the new department and by an act approved March 3, 1849, "The Home Department" was created. It was so called in the title of the act, but in the body of the act it was styled "The Department of the Interior," and that remains its designation.

To the new department was transferred from the State Department the supervision of matters concerning patents and the taking of the census; from the Treasury Department the supervision of public lands, of mines, of the accounts of marshals, clerks and other officers of the United States courts; from the War Department the supervision of Indian affairs and the payment of pensions; from the President the supervisory and appellate power over the Commissioner of Public Buildings and Grounds. The head of the department was also given supervisory powers over the boards of inspectors and the warden of the penitentiary of the District of Columbia.

Later other bureaus, such as the Bureau of Geological Survey, the Bureau of Mines and the Bureau of Education, have been added. At the present time the Interior Department embraces supervision over the following subjects and activities.

General Land Office—The Commissioner of the General Land Office is charged with the survey, management and sale of the public domain, issuing patents therefor, etc.

Office of Indian Affairs—The Commissioner of Indian Affairs has charge of the Indian tribes of the United States, exclusive of Alaska. He looks after their lands, moneys, schools and general welfare and purchases the necessary supplies.

Patent Office—The Commissioner of Patents is charged with the administration of the patent laws and supervises all matters relating to letters-patent for inventions and trade-marks, prints and labels.

Pension Office—The Commissioner of Pensions supervises the examination and adjudication of all claims arising under the laws of Congress granting pensions and for bounty land warrants.

Geological Survey—The Geological Survey makes topographical and geologic surveys, collects statistics of mineral resources, conducts investigations relating to surface and underground waters and the classification of public lands.

Bureau of Education—The Bureau of Education collects and publishes statistics on education, issues bulletins on educational topics, has charge of the schools for the education of native children in Alaska, including the reindeer service for Alaska and the administration of the endowment fund for the support of colleges for the benefit of agricultural and mechanic arts.

Reclamation Service—The Reclamation Service is charged with the construction of the irrigation works in arid states.

Bureau of Mines—The Bureau of Mines is charged with making investigation of the methods of mining, especially with relation to the safety appliances best adapted to prevent accidents, the treatment of ores and other mineral substances and the uses of electricity and explosives.

Supervision of the national parks has been vested by Congress in the Secretary of the Interior. There are two assistant secretaries. The First Assistant has more directly charge of matters concerning the General Land Office, the Indian Office, the Reclamation Service, the Geological Survey, the Bureau of Education and the Bureau of Mines. Matters concerning the Patent Office, the Pension Bureau, the national parks and reservations, the eleemosynary institutions of the District of Columbia are under the direction of the Assistant Secretary.

Before the Department of the Interior was created the affairs of the various Indian tribes were handled by the War Department. In those days the government was almost continuously at war with some of the various tribes of Indians. It was not deemed possible to bring them under the influence of civilization and no attempt was made to do so. After a time a better feeling toward the red man began to spread throughout the country, and when the Department of the Interior was authorized matters pertaining to the original possessors of the land were consigned to it. Since then Indian wars have gradually ceased. The work of civilizing and educating them was not an easy task, but improved conditions have gone on from year to year. During the year 1923 great advancement was made.

Many steps were taken toward the improvement of conditions by Secretary Work. A committee of one hundred distinguished citizens and Indian advocates was organized and after a conference recommen-

dations were made for the solution of the Indian problem. The Indians are still divided in three hundred tribes, speaking fifty-eight dialects. It is thought they have so increased in number as to now equal, at least, the number before the government of the United States was formed.

One of the important functions of the Department of the Interior is the issuing of patents on public lands. Under recent changes in the department and improvement in the service it now requires only about thirty days for the purchaser or homesteader to get his patent, when formerly it required months. At one time there were more than forty thousand claims for patents on file waiting action. Now forty days will clear the files. Properly connected with the administration of public lands may be classed that of reclamation.

In a reassignment of duties of the officials of the Bureau of Reclamation put into effect on January 1, 1924, the functions of government reclamation were divided. A field commissioner of reclamation having been appointed, his headquarters were located at Denver, Colorado, where he was placed in charge of all functions of the bureau pertaining to the operation of the projects, delivery of water, lands, crop production, handling and marketing, improvement of farm conditions, industrial betterment, collection of water rentals and other charges, and procuring settlers for projects. The chief engineer, also with headquarters at Denver, was assigned the task of handling the engineering work, including reconnaissance and investigation of proposed projects and the designing of irrigation works and their construction.

The act creating the Department of the Interior made no specific provision for a seal. Thomas Ewing, the first Secretary, found the necessity for having a seal by which documents could be authenticated and engaged E. Stabler, an engraver of Sandy Springs, Maryland, to prepare a design and make a seal. The design first used by Secretary Ewing is practically the design today. It is an eagle just ready to soar, resting on a sheaf of grain, with arrows and olive branch in its talons, and over it the words "DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR."

Secretary Work was not satisfied with the seal and issued the following order: The seal, being a representation of an eagle with extended wings, with head and body to a left position, standing on a rock foundation, with mountains and pine trees as a background, is hereby adopted, effective September 26, 1923, as the seal of the Department of the Interior, under the provision of Section 4 of an act entitled "An Act to Make Uniform Charges for Furnishing Copies of Records of the Interior Department, and its Several Bureaus," approved August 24, 1912 (37 Stat. 497), superseding department seal adopted May 1, 1923.

The salary of the Secretary of the Interior has always been the same as the other members of the cabinet and is now twelve thousand dollars per annum.

Roster of Secretaries of the Interior

Thomas Ewing, of Ohio.
From March 8, 1849, to July 22, 1850 (*see* Department of the Treasury).

Thomas M. T. McKennan, of Pennsylvania.
From August 15, 1850 (served but ten days).

Alexander H. H. Stuart, of Virginia.
From September 16, 1850, to March 7, 1853.

Robert McClelland, of Michigan.
From March 8, 1853, to March 9, 1857.

Jacob Thompson, of Mississippi.
From March 10, 1857, to January 8, 1861.

Caleb B. Smith, of Indiana.
From March 5, 1861, to December 31, 1862.

John P. Usher, of Indiana.
From January 10, 1863, to May 15, 1865.

James Harlan, of Iowa.
From May 16, 1865, to August 31, 1866.

Orville H. Browning, of Illinois.
From September 1, 1866, to March 3, 1869.

Jacob D. Cox, of Ohio.
From March 9, 1869, to October 31, 1870.

Columbus Delano, of Ohio.
From November 1, 1870, to September 30, 1875.

Zachariah Chandler, of Michigan.
From October 20, 1875, to March 11, 1877.

Carl Schurz, of Missouri.
From March 12, 1877, to March 7, 1881.

Samuel J. Kirkwood, of Iowa.
From March 8, 1881, to April 17, 1882.

Henry M. Teller, of Colorado.
From April 17, 1882, to March 3, 1885.

Lucius Q. C. Lamar, of Mississippi.
From March 7, 1885, to January 10, 1888.

WILLIAM F. VILAS, of Wisconsin.

From January 17, 1888, to March 6, 1889 (*see* Postoffice Department).

JOHN W. NOBLE, of Missouri.

From March 7, 1889, to March 6, 1893.

HOKE SMITH, of Georgia.

From March 7, 1893, to August 31, 1896.

DAVID B. FRANCIS, of Missouri.

From September 4, 1896, to March 5, 1897.

CORNELIUS N. BLISS, of New York.

From March 6, 1897, to February 19, 1899.

ETHAN A. HITCHCOCK, of Missouri.

From February 20, 1899, to March 3, 1907.

JAMES R. GARFIELD, of Ohio.

From March 4, 1907, to March 4, 1909.

RICHARD BALLINGER, of Washington.

From March 5, 1909, to March 4, 1911.

WALTER LOWRIE FISHER, of Illinois.

From March 11, 1911, to March 4, 1913.

FRANKLIN KNIGHT LANE, of California.

March 5, 1913, to February 29, 1920.

JOHN BARTON PAYNE, of Illinois.

From March 15, 1920, to March 4, 1921.

ALBERT B. FALL, of New Mexico.

From March 5, 1921, to March 4, 1923.

HUBERT WORK, of Colorado.

From March 4, 1923.

Biographies of Secretaries of the Interior

Alexander Hugh Holmes Stuart

Alexander H. H. Stuart—Secretary of the Interior from September 16, 1850, to March 7, 1853. Born in Staunton, Virginia, April 2, 1807. Son of Archibald Stuart. Educated at the University of Virginia. Died at Staunton, Virginia, February 13, 1891.

1836—Member Virginia Legislature.
1841—Member national House of Representatives.
1850—Secretary of the Interior.
1857—Member Virginia Senate.

Mr. Stuart was a descendant of a prominent and influential family of Virginia. His father was a distinguished soldier during the Revolutionary War. Alexander studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1828. He became a Whig in politics and a follower of Henry Clay. As a Whig he was elected first to the Virginia Legislature and then to Congress. He served but one term in Congress.

On reorganizing his cabinet President Fillmore seems to have had difficulty in securing a Secretary of the Interior. The department was just in a state of organization, the first Secretary, Thomas Ewing, having commenced the work of organization when he resigned on July 22, 1850. James A. Pierce, of Maryland, was nominated and confirmed, but declined to accept the office. Thomas M. T. McKennan, of Pennsylvania, was nominated, confirmed and commissioned but served only ten days. Then Mr. Stuart was appointed and accepted. He completed the organization of the department.

Retiring from the cabinet at the close of the administration of President Fillmore Mr. Stuart did not again hold a public office. In 1866 he presented his credentials as a Unionist to the thirty-ninth Congress but was not admitted to his seat.

Robert McClelland

Robert McClelland—Secretary of the Interior from March 8, 1853, to March 9, 1857. Born in Greencastle, Pennsylvania, August 2, 1807. Son of John McClelland. Educated at Dickinson College. Married, in 1837, Miss Sarah E. Sabin. Died in Detroit, Michigan, August 30, 1880.

1836—Member Michigan Constitutional Convention.
1840—Member Michigan Legislature.
1843—Member national House of Representatives.
1850—Member Michigan Constitutional Convention.
1851—Governor of Michigan.
1853—Secretary of the Interior.
1867—Member Michigan Constitutional Convention.

After completing his collegiate course in 1829 Mr. McClelland studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1831. He removed to Michigan and soon acquired a leading position. He was a member of the three constitutional conventions of the state—1836, 1850 and 1867. He was elected as a Democrat to the twenty-eighth Congress and served three terms, from March 4, 1843, to March 3, 1849. In Congress he supported John Quincy Adams in his fight for the right of petition and voted for the Wilmot Proviso.

JACOB THOMPSON

JACOB THOMPSON—Secretary of the Interior from March 10, 1857, to January 8, 1861. Born at Leesburg, North Carolina, May 15, 1810. Educated at the University of North Carolina. Died in Memphis, Tennessee, March 24, 1885.

1839—Member national House of Representatives.
1857—Secretary of the Interior.
1862—Governor of Mississippi, under the Confederacy.

Mr. Thompson became a citizen of Mississippi in 1834 and soon rose to influence in the Democratic party. In 1839 he was sent to Congress and remained a member of the House of Representatives until he became Secretary of the Interior in 1857. He was of the extreme states rights school and early advocated the right of secession.

While he was Secretary of the Interior in the cabinet of President Buchanan Mr. Thompson was appointed a commissioner on the part of Mississippi to visit North Carolina for the purpose of influencing the people of that state to vote for secession. When President Buchanan determined to send provisions and supplies to Fort Sumter on the steamer *Star of the West*, Secretary Thompson, who knew of the sailing of that vessel, gave the information to the authorities of South Carolina, on which they acted, by firing on the steamer.

During the war between the states Mr. Thompson was sent by the Confederate government on a mission to Canada to organize a plan to release the Confederate prisoners at Camp Douglas. The mission proved a failure.

CALEB BLOOD SMITH

CALEB B. SMITH—Secretary of the Interior from March 5, 1861, to December 31, 1862. Born in Boston, Massachusetts, April 16, 1808. Educated at Miami University. Died at Indianapolis, Indiana, January 7, 1864.

1833—Member Indiana Legislature.
1843—Member national House of Representatives.
1861—Secretary of the Interior.
1863—United States Judge for the District of Indiana.

When Caleb B. Smith was but four years old his parents removed from Boston to Cincinnati, Ohio, and there the young lad received his early education preparing for a collegiate course at Miami University. After graduating from the university he studied law. Before being admitted to the bar he removed to Connersville, Indiana, where he began the practice of his profession. Within a few years he became one of the leading and most successful lawyers in the state. His power over a jury was little less than magical.

In 1832 he established and for some time edited the Indiana *Sentinel*, founding a reputation as a pungent political writer. In politics he was a Whig of the Henry Clay school, and in 1843 was elected to Congress, where he served six years. During one term Abraham Lincoln was a member with him and the two formed a friendship that lasted until the death of Mr. Smith.

In Congress he ranked as one of the ablest of the Whig orators, ready in debate and of more than ordinary eloquence. He strongly opposed the war with Mexico. He was ever earnestly opposed to slavery and was vigorous in his denunciations of that institution.

In 1852 he became largely interested in railroad building and was elected president of what was then known as the Cincinnati and Chicago Railroad Company, now a part of the Big Four system. This office took him to Cincinnati, where he had lived as a youth, but in 1858 he returned to Indiana and resumed the practice of his profession. By this time he had become a Republican and one of the leaders of that party in the state. He was a delegate to the Republican National Convention in 1860 and aided in the nomination of Mr. Lincoln for President.

Mr. Lincoln chose him as Secretary of the Interior, but he lacked administrative ability, and in 1863 the President appointed him United States District Judge for Indiana. His death was sudden. While in his room in the government building at Indianapolis, on January 7, 1864, he was stricken with a hemorrhage, which resulted in his death in a few minutes.

JOHN PALMER USHUR

JOHN P. USHUR—Secretary of the Interior from January 10, 1863, to May 15, 1865. Born in Brookfield, New York, January 9, 1816. Died in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, April 13, 1889.

1850—Member Indiana Legislature.
1861—Attorney General of Indiana.
1862—First Assistant Secretary of the Interior.
1863—Secretary of the Interior.

The family from which Mr. Ushur descended was one of the oldest in New England. He was a descendant of Hezekiah Ushur, who settled in Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1639, and who purchased and brought from England the types and presses on which Eliot's bible was printed.

John was admitted to the bar in 1839 and removed to Terre Haute, Indiana. He quickly became the leader of the bar at Terre Haute and one of the leaders of the Republican party when formed in Indiana.

In 1860 he was elected attorney general of the state on the first Republican ticket successful in Indiana. On the same ticket Oliver P. Morton was elected lieutenant governor, and Benjamin Harrison, afterward President of the United States, was elected reporter of the decisions of the Supreme Court. In the campaign Mr. Ushur proved to be a most effective stump speaker.

In 1862 President Lincoln appointed him First Assistant Secretary of the Interior, and on the resignation of Secretary Smith Mr. Ushur was placed at the head of the department, where he displayed fine administrative abilities. Disagreeing with President Johnson in his attitude toward Congress, Mr. Ushur resigned in May, 1865. Leaving the cabinet he became the general counsel of the Missouri Pacific Railroad.

JAMES HARLAN

JAMES HARLAN—Secretary of the Interior from May 16, 1865, to August 31, 1866. Born in Clark county, Illinois, August 20, 1820. Son of Silas and Mary (Conley) Harlan. Educated at Asbury (now DePauw) University. Married Ann Eliza Peck. Died October 5, 1899, at Mount Pleasant, Iowa.

1847—Superintendent of Public Instruction, Iowa.
1855—United States Senator.
1857—United States Senator.
1865—Secretary of the Interior.
1867—United States Senator.

James Harlan was but four years old when his father removed from Illinois to Indiana, where the young lad grew up on a farm. As soon as he was old enough he assisted in the farm work, which was very laborious, as the farm was in the forest where the trees had to be cleared away before the land could be cultivated. Having secured a preliminary education James entered Asbury University, graduating in 1845 with the highest honors of his class. During his college course he supported himself by working on a farm and by teaching school.

Soon after graduating from college Mr. Harlan removed to Iowa, having been appointed principal of Iowa City College. In 1847 he was made superintendent of public instruction of the state. While holding that position he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1853. The same year he was made president of the Iowa Wesleyan College at Mount Pleasant.

Mr. Harlan was a Whig in politics and took an active interest in political matters. As a Whig he was elected in 1855 to the United

States Senate. His seat was afterward declared vacant on account of some informality in the legislative proceedings at the time of his election. In 1857 he was re-elected as a Republican.

In the Senate he was one of the warmest supporters of President Lincoln in the prosecution of the war for the re-establishment of the Union. He resigned from the Senate to accept a place in the cabinet of President Johnson as Secretary of the Interior. When the strife between Congress and the President over the matter of reconstruction became acute Secretary Harlan resigned from the cabinet and was again sent to the United States Senate, where he earnestly supported the congressional plan of reconstruction. Mr. Harlan was regarded as one of the strong debaters in the Senate.

ORVILLE HICKMAN BROWNING

ORVILLE H. BROWNING—Secretary of the Interior from September 1, 1866, to March 3, 1869. Born in Harrison county, Kentucky, February 10, 1806. Educated at Augusta University. Died at Quincy, Illinois, August 10, 1881.

1836—Member Illinois Senate.
1840—Member Illinois House of Representatives.
1861—United States Senator.
1866—Secretary of the Interior.
1869—Member Illinois Constitutional Convention.

After leaving college Mr. Browning studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1831 and settled at Quincy, Illinois. At the outbreak of the Back Hawk War he volunteered and served in the campaign against that Indian chief.

He early became prominent in politics, first as a Whig and then as a Republican. He was one of the organizers of the latter party in Illinois and was one of its trusted leaders. On the death of Senator Stephen A. Douglas, Governor Yates appointed Mr. Browning to the vacancy in the Senate. In the Senate he was one of the steadfast supporters of President Lincoln in the conduct of the war, but when it came to the question of reconstruction he opposed the congressional plan and supported that of President Johnson.

JACOB DOLSON COX

JACOB D. COX—Secretary of the Interior from March 9, 1869, to October 31, 1870. Born in Montreal, Canada, October 27, 1828. Son of Jacob D. and Thedia Redelia (Kenyon) Cox. Educated at Oberlin (Ohio) College. Died in Magnolia, Massachusetts, August 4, 1900.

1861—Member Ohio Senate.
1861—Brigadier General of Volunteers.
1864—Major General Volunteers.

1865—Governor of Ohio.
1869—Secretary of the Interior.
1877—Member national House of Representatives.

Jacob D. Cox was one of the ablest of the volunteer generals during the Civil War. His parents were natives of the United States but were temporarily in Canada at the time of his birth. They returned to the United States and removed to Ohio, where the son was educated at Oberlin College, graduating in 1851. He early took an interest in political matters, being strongly opposed to slavery. He became one of the organizers of the Republican party in Ohio.

He was a member of the State Senate in 1861 at the time of the bombardment of Fort Sumter, and immediately tendered his services to the governor of the state. He was, at the time, brigadier general in the state militia and was ordered by the governor to put the militia immediately on a war footing. When the first regiment was ready for the field Mr. Cox was made brigadier general of volunteers and took an active part in the campaign in West Virginia. When General McClellan was made commander of the Army of the Potomac, General Cox was left in command of the troops in West Virginia. Later he was transferred to the East and commanded a division in the battles of South Mountain and Antietam. For his gallantry in these two battles his name was sent to the Senate for promotion to major general, but as the number of officers in that grade was already in excess of the legal number he was not confirmed. General Cox was returned to West Virginia in command of that district, and a little later was transferred to Ohio and placed in command of the District of Ohio under General Burnside.

When the campaign opened for the recovery of East Tennessee General Cox was sent to Knoxville and took part in the defense of that place during the siege by General Longstreet. For some months he was temporarily in command of the twenty-third corps and with that corps took part in the Atlanta campaign. He commanded that corps in the battle of Franklin. After the battle of Nashville he was sent with the corps to Goldsboro, South Carolina, and was at the final surrender of General Johnston.

As Secretary of the Interior General Cox was a strong advocate of a new departure in the treatment of the Indian tribes. He advocated education and civilization of the Indians. His administration of the department was characterized by firmness and humanity in the treatment of the Indians. In 1873 he became president of the Wabash System of Railways and in 1876 was elected a representative in Congress, serving one term. He was president of the University of Cincinnati at the time of his death. General Cox contributed three valuable volumes to the history of the Civil War—"The Battle of Atlanta," "March to the Sea" and "Military Reminiscences."

COLUMBUS DELANO

COLUMBUS DELANO—Secretary of the Interior from November 1, 1870, to September 30, 1875. Born at Strauchan, Vermont, June 5, 1809. Son of James and Lucinda (Bateman) Delano. Educated in the common schools. Married, July 14, 1834, Elizabeth Leavenworth. Died in Mount Vernon, Ohio, October 25, 1896.

1845—Member national House of Representatives.
1863—Member Ohio Legislature.
1865—Member national House of Representatives.
1869—Commissioner of Internal Revenue.
1870—Secretary of the Interior.

Mr. Delano was a descendant of one of the oldest of the New England families. His father died when Columbus was but six years old and an uncle took him into his family, removing to Mount Vernon, Ohio. As a boy he worked in a woollen mill, pursuing his studies, however, in his leisure time, and eventually studied law. He was admitted to the bar in 1831 and began the active practice of his profession. He took an active part in politics, and after an exciting contest was elected to Congress as a Whig and took his seat on March 4, 1845. He served but one term.

Once he came within two votes of receiving the party nomination for governor of the state, and at another time was defeated for the United States Senate by two votes. When the Whig party went to pieces Mr. Delano became a Republican. In the early part of the Civil War he acted as commissary general of Ohio.

In 1869 he was appointed by President Grant Commissioner of Internal Revenue and in that position did valuable service in reorganizing the bureau. As Secretary of the Interior his administration gave rise to numerous scandals, especially in the Land and Indian bureaus, not from any dishonesty on the part of Mr. Delano but from a lack of administrative ability.

ZACHARIAH CHANDLER

ZACHARIAH CHANDLER—Secretary of the Interior from October 20, 1875, to March 11, 1877. Born at Bedford, New Hampshire, December 10, 1813. Son of Samuel and Margaret (Orr) Chandler. Educated in the common schools. Married Miss Letitia Douglas. Died at Chicago, Illinois, November 1, 1889.

1857—United States Senator.
1875—Secretary of the Interior.
1879—United States Senator.

The Chandler family were among the first settlers of Bedford, New Hampshire. The name appears among those of the original grantees of the place in 1757. The first of the family to come to America was William Chandler, one of the Puritan emigration, about 1637. He settled

at Roxbury, Massachusetts, where others of the family soon joined him. They were a conspicuous English family in the Scotch-Irish Presbyterian settlement of Souhegan-East. Samuel Chandler, father of Zachariah, was a descendant of William through the branch of the family that was among the original settlers of Bedford. He was a prominent citizen of the place and married Margaret Orr, a daughter of the trusted friend and lieutenant of General John Stark.

When but six years old young Chandler began his school life, attending the schools of Bedford until he was fourteen years of age. In his fifteenth and sixteenth years he attended for a few months the academies at Pembroke and Derry. He was always regarded as a studious lad. During the later years of his school life he worked on a farm in the summer months. During the last season he was at home he took entire charge of the farm work. In 1833 he entered a store at Nashua, New Hampshire, as a clerk and thus got his first taste of business life. He remained in the store but a short time and in September of that year turned his face to the West, finally locating at Detroit, Michigan. There he entered into commercial business with his brother-in-law. The business was small at first and Mr. Chandler worked day and night, sleeping in the store and living on three hundred dollars a year. The business rapidly grew and it was not long until it was the commanding mercantile house of Detroit. It is said that it was the first store in Detroit whose sales aggregated fifty thousand dollars a year.

Mr. Chandler became, in time, the head of the firm and later abandoned the retail branch of the business entirely, doing an exclusive wholesale business. In 1860 Mr. Chandler was known to the commercial world throughout the country as a man of sound business judgment and of large means.

In politics he was originally a Whig. During the first years of his residence in Detroit he did not take much part in political matters, his business affairs absorbing his whole attention. In 1848, for the first time he became active in politics, making a number of speeches that year in favor of the election of General Taylor as President. Gradually he came to be recognized as one of the Whig leaders in Detroit and in February, 1851, was made the party candidate for mayor of the city. So well was his reputation as a sound business man established that he carried every precinct in the city.

His administration as mayor was a successful one for the city, many improvements being introduced in the methods of transacting the business of the public. He was fearless in the discharge of his duties and guarded the interests of the people with scrupulous exactness. His reputation soon spread through the state and in 1852 he was nominated by his party for governor, receiving all but four of the votes in the convention. At that time the Democrats were in the ascendency in Michigan and Mr. Chandler was defeated at the polls.

Mr. Chandler early evinced a strong opposition to the extension of slavery and when the Whig party dissolved he cast in his political lot with the opponents of slavery. He was a delegate to the first Republican Convention, held in Philadelphia in 1856, and in that convention voted for Abraham Lincoln for Vice President. By this time the Republicans had obtained control in the legislature of Michigan, and on January 10, 1857, Mr. Chandler was elected to the United States Senate, taking his seat on March 4 of that year. In the Senate he at once took an aggressive stand against the extension of slave territory.

He was an ardent advocate of the protection theory of a tariff and favored an elaborate system of internal improvements. From 1861 to 1875 he was chairman of the Senate Committee on Commerce. During the Civil War he was a strong supporter of the administration of President Lincoln, ever urging a most vigorous prosecution of the war. He supported the congressional plan of reconstruction as against that of President Johnson, being regarded as a radical.

In 1873, when Senator Chandler happened to be in Washington on business, a Colonel Pickett came to the city from the South. He had been connected in a confidential capacity with the Confederate war department. He had possession of a vast quantity of the Confederate archives which he had secreted before the evacuation of Richmond by the Confederate government. These he offered to sell to the government. Congress was not in session and the Secretary of War had no authority to make the purchase. Senator Chandler heard of the matter and proposed making the purchase. The price asked was two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. The senator examined the documents and convinced himself they would be of great value to the government and finally purchased them on his own account, paying seventy-five thousand dollars. When Congress met its attention was called to the matter by the Secretary of War and that official was authorized to purchase the documents from Mr. Chandler at the price he had paid for them. These documents thus saved to the government later furnished the evidence to defeat claims made against the government, aggregating many millions of dollars.

In 1874 Mr. Chandler was defeated for re-election to the Senate and in October, 1875, President Grant made him Secretary of the Interior. The department was in a greatly demoralized condition and Secretary Chandler set himself to the work of clearing it of all dishonest employees. Within one month after he had assumed the duties of the office all of the clerks in one important room were dismissed because of the dishonesty and looseness in the transaction of the business. Speaking of it the night after the dismissals had been made, Secretary Chandler said: "I have emptied one large room and have left it in charge of a colored porter who has the key, and cannot read or write, and who is instructed to permit no one to enter without my written order."

The payroll of the patent office was put in charge of a new man, and it was discovered that it carried the names of more than twenty men who could not be found and who had been for months regularly drawing large salaries. It was also found that work requiring expert skill had been given to incompetent clerks, who farmed the work out at reduced rates, pocketing the difference. These discoveries led to further dismissals from the department.

The Bureau of Indian Affairs was found to be in an unsavory condition and the Secretary summarily removed a number of employees. The commissioner stoutly objected, saying the dismissed employees were experienced clerks and that it would be impossible to run the bureau without them. The subject had been talked over between President Grant and the Secretary. At a cabinet meeting the President asked Secretary Chandler if the obnoxious clerks had been removed. He was told what the commissioner had said. The President quietly, but with emphasis, remarked: "Well, Mr. Secretary, you can shut up the bureau, can't you?" The answer was in the affirmative. "Well, then," said the President, "have those men dismissed before three o'clock this afternoon or shut up the bureau." It was done.

Secretary Chandler had great trouble with a number of attorneys who claimed to represent various tribes of Indians, but his firmness kept them out of the department. He also had great trouble with members of Congress, they insisting on having their friends appointed to places, but Mr. Chandler turned a deaf ear to the clamoring. The reforms he introduced into the Pension Bureau saved to the government hundreds of thousands of dollars. In the land office he broke up what was known as the combination for frauds in the Chippewa half-breed scrip. When he left the department at the close of the administration of President Grant it was clear of frauds and corruption and in most admirable working order.

In February, 1879, he was again elected to the United States Senate and served until his death in 1889. His death was sudden, occurring at night in his room at the Grand Pacific Hotel in Chicago. He had addressed a meeting in the afternoon and retired to his room about midnight in his usual health. The next morning he was found dead in his bed.

CARL SCHURZ

CARL SCHURZ—Secretary of the Interior from March 12, 1877, to March 7, 1881. Born near Cologne, Prussia, March 2, 1829. Educated at Bonn University. Died in New York city, May 14, 1906.

1861—Minister to Spain.
1862—Brigadier General of Volunteers.
1863—Major General of Volunteers.
1869—United States Senator.
1877—Secretary of the Interior.

At the age of nineteen Carl Schurz became identified with a revolutionary movement in Germany as a writer for one of the revolutionary journals. To escape arrest he was forced to fly from Bonn. He entered the revolutionary army and when the army was finally defeated he escaped into Switzerland. He secretly returned to Germany in 1850 and succeeded in effecting the escape of his friend and partner in the journal from the fortress of Spandau, where he had been confined for some years. The two men managed to escape from Germany and reach England.

For several years Mr. Schurz lived in Paris and London, acting as correspondent and contributor to some of the leading papers, in the meantime perfecting himself in the English language which he later came to speak and write with great fluency and accuracy. In 1855 he came to the United States, settling in Wisconsin. There he united with the Republican party and rose to distinction and influence, especially with the German population of the state. He was in great demand as a campaign speaker, especially to audiences of his fellow-Germans. In 1857 he took a prominent part in the campaign in Illinois between Mr. Lincoln and Senator Douglas, canvassing the state in the interest of Mr. Lincoln.

Mr. Schurz removed from Wisconsin to Missouri. It was largely through his influence that Missouri was saved to the Union in 1861. On the accession of Mr. Lincoln to the presidency Mr. Schurz was sent to Spain as minister plenipotentiary. When the Civil War broke out Mr. Schurz resigned from his position in Spain and returned to the United States. He tendered his services to the President and served in the army until the close of the war, taking part in several of the important battles fought by the Army of the Potomac.

At the close of the war he returned to St. Louis and engaged in the newspaper business, becoming the real leader of the Republican party in Missouri. In 1868 he was elected to the United States Senate to succeed John B. Henderson, who had lost cast with his party by voting for the acquittal of President Johnson in his impeachment trial.

As senator Mr. Schurz became one of the ablest and most effective of the debaters on the Republican side, but later disagreed with President Grant and became the leader of the Liberal Republicans, presiding over the Liberal convention which nominated Horace Greeley for President in 1872. Mr. Schurz supported Mr. Greeley, but did not wholly sever his connection with the Republican party. When Mr. Hayes became President he appointed Mr. Schurz Secretary of the Interior. As head of the Interior Department he introduced competitive examinations for appointments to positions in the department. He also inaugurated a movement for the better protection and preservation of the forests on government lands.

His treatment of the Indians aroused great indignation in some sections of the country and subjected him to severe criticisms. He issued

an order that all Indians should be taken to the Indian territory. The Poncas were a small tribe living on their reservation in Nebraska. They were a peaceable tribe, whose boast was that no Ponca had ever injured a white man. They were much attached to their home in Nebraska and strongly protested against being removed, but Secretary Schurz was inexorable. The climate of Indian territory did not agree with the Poncas and they rapidly sickened and died. At last nearly the whole remnant of the tribe determined to return to their old home in Nebraska. They fled from the Indian territory, taking with them the coffins of those who had died. When the facts became known to the public the Secretary was severely criticized by the press and in Congress.

Retiring from the cabinet after the accession of President Garfield, Mr. Schurz took up his residence in New York city, where for a number of years he acted as editor of the Evening *Post*. By this time he had wholly severed his relations with the Republican party, and in 1884, 1888 and 1892 he supported Mr. Cleveland. In 1896, however, he once more acted with the Republicans.

SAMUEL JORDAN KIRKWOOD

SAMUEL J. KIRKWOOD—Secretary of the Interior from March 8, 1881, to April 17, 1882. Born in Harford county, Maryland, December 20, 1813. Academic education. Died in Iowa City, Iowa, February 1, 1894.

1850—Member Ohio Constitutional Convention.
1856—Member Iowa Senate.
1859—Governor of Iowa.
1866—United States Senator.
1875—Governor of Iowa.
1877—United States Senator.
1881—Secretary of the Interior.

At the age of fourteen young Kirkwood became a clerk in a drug store in Washington, District of Columbia. He followed this business for several years, but in 1835 he removed to Ohio and studied law. He was admitted to the bar in 1843 and two years later removed to Iowa. There he devoted himself to farming and milling. He became popular with his neighbors and in 1856 was elected to the State Senate after a residence in the state of but little more than one year. In 1859 he was elected governor of the state and re-elected in 1861, becoming one of the most energetic and efficient of the Northern war governors. In 1862 President Lincoln nominated him as minister to Denmark. He was promptly confirmed by the Senate, but declined the office.

In 1866 he was elected to the United States Senate to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of James Harlan and served until March 3, 1867. In 1875 he was elected governor of Iowa for the third time but resigned in 1877, having been again elected to the United States Senate. The state of Iowa has placed his statue in Statuary Hall in the capitol at Washington.

HENRY MOORE TELLER

HENRY M. TELLER—Secretary of the Interior from April 17, 1882, to March 3, 1885. Born in Allegany county, New York, May 23, 1830. Academic education.

1876—United States Senator.
1882—Secretary of the Interior.
1885—United States Senator.
1908—Member Monetary Commission.

The ancestors of Mr. Teller were from Holland. After completing an academic course Mr. Teller studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1858. He first removed to Illinois and then to Colorado, becoming a citizen of Colorado in 1861. He was successful in his profession and took an active interest in political affairs, acting with the Republicans. In 1876, when Colorado was admitted into the Union as a state, Mr. Teller was elected one of the two United States senators. He continued to serve until he resigned in 1882 to accept a seat in the cabinet of President Arthur as Secretary of the Interior. His administration of the department was efficient.

In 1885 he was again elected to the Senate, and was three times re-elected—once as a Republican, once as an Independent Republican and once as a Democrat. Mr. Teller was an ardent advocate for the free coinage of silver and separated from his party on that issue. He served continuously until March 3, 1909. When the monetary commission was raised in 1908 Mr. Teller was made a member.

LUCIUS QUINTUS CINCINNATUS LAMAR

LUCIUS Q. C. LAMAR—Secretary of the Interior from March 7, 1885, to January 10, 1888. Born in Putnam county, Georgia, September 17, 1825. Son of L. Q. C. Lamar. Educated at Emory College. Died at Vineville, Georgia, January 23, 1893.

1853—Member Georgia Legislature.
1857—Member national House of Representatives.
1873—Member national House of Representatives.
1877—United States Senator.
1885—Secretary of the Interior.
1888—Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

Mr. Lamar left his native state and removed to Mississippi, but returned to Georgia for his education. He graduated from Emory College in 1845 and studied law in Macon, being admitted to the bar in 1847. In 1848 he went again to Mississippi and for one year was professor of mathematics in the University of Mississippi. In 1852 he went once more to Georgia and for a time practiced his profession in that state and served one term in the Georgia Legislature.

He returned again to Mississippi and was elected to Congress from that state, serving until he resigned in December, 1860, to take part in the Secession Convention of Mississippi. During a part of the Civil War he served in the Confederate Army and was then sent as a special envoy to Russia. Returning to the United States after the close of the war he accepted the chair of political economy and social science in the University of Mississippi and later became professor of law in that institution.

In 1873 he became again a representative in Congress. While a member of the House he delivered a notable eulogy on the late Senator Sumner. This address was remarkable for its eloquence, and for the view taken of the character and public services of Mr. Sumner, especially as coming from a Southern man. In 1877 Mr. Lamar became a member of the United States Senate. In the Senate he was an earnest and eloquent advocate of the policy of internal improvements, especially the improvement of navigation in the Mississippi River and its tributaries. While serving as Secretary of the Interior Mr. Lamar was appointed an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, an office he continued to hold until his death.

JOHN WILLOCK NOBLE

JOHN W. NOBLE—Secretary of the Interior from March 7, 1889, to March 6, 1893. Born in Lancaster, Ohio, October 26, 1831. Son of Catharine (McDill) Noble. Educated at Yale College. Married, in 1864, Lisabeth Halstead.

1867—United States Attorney for Eastern Missouri.
1889—Secretary of the Interior.

After graduating from Yale College in 1851, Mr. Noble studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1855. A year later he removed to Keokuk, Iowa, and there soon became known as a lawyer of much more than ordinary ability. At the outbreak of the Civil War he entered the Union Army as a lieutenant in an Iowa regiment. He was several times promoted and at the close of the war held the rank of colonel. He served in all the campaigns of the Western army.

After the war he located at St. Louis, Missouri, to practice his profession. President Johnson appointed him United States Attorney for the District of Eastern Missouri, an office he continued to hold under President Grant. As attorney for the government he gained a high reputation for his energy in prosecuting the members of the famous "whiskey ring." As Secretary of the Interior his administration was characterized by energy, especially in securing better treatment for the Indians.

HOKE SMITH

HOKE SMITH—Secretary of the Interior from March 7, 1893, to August 31, 1896. Born at Newton, North Carolina, September 2, 1859. Son of Hosea Hildreth and Mary Brent (Hoke) Smith. Educated in a school conducted by his father. Married, December 19, 1883, Miss Birdie Cobb; August 27, 1924, Miss Mazie Crawford.

1893—Secretary of the Interior.
1907—Governor of Georgia.
1911—Member United States Senate.

When quite a young man Mr. Smith removed from North Carolina to Georgia. He there began the practice of law at Atlanta, but soon became interested in newspaper work. A vigorous and pungent writer he made his paper, the Atlanta *Journal*, a powerful organ for his party and himself known to the leaders of the Democratic party not only in Georgia but throughout the nation.

When President Cleveland entered upon his second term he chose Mr. Smith for Secretary of the Interior. In this position he won the appreciation of the public by the fairness of his rulings and for the efficiency to which he brought the public business. He resigned the cabinet position to become governor of Georgia, where he served two terms. At the close of his second term he was sent to the United States Senate.

DAVID ROWLAND FRANCIS

DAVID R. FRANCIS—Secretary of the Interior from September 4, 1896, to March 5, 1897. Born in Richmond, Kentucky, October 1, 1850. Son of John B. and Eliza Caldwell (Rowland) Francis. Educated at Washington University, St. Louis. Married, in January, 1876, Jennie Perry.

1885—Mayor of St. Louis.
1887—Governor of Missouri.
1896—Secretary of the Interior.

For many years Mr. Francis was a leading business man of St. Louis. He went to St. Louis from Kentucky in 1866 and there entered Washington University. Leaving the university in 1870 he began his remarkable commercial life as a clerk in a wholesale grocery and commission house. In 1877 he established an independent business and began the exportation of grain. He soon became identified with many important business enterprises and took his place among the leading business men of the city.

In 1885 he was nominated by the Democrats for mayor of St. Louis and notwithstanding the city was Republican by a large majority he

was triumphantly elected. His administration was on a business basis and he brought about a number of reforms. In 1888 he was elected governor of the state. He was President of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition Company and was the guiding spirit of the exposition, receiving decorations from several European countries.

CORNELIUS M. BLISS

CORNELIUS M. BLISS—Secretary of the Interior from March 6, 1897, to February 19, 1899. Born in Fall River, Massachusetts, January 26, 1833. Educated in the public schools and Fall River Academy.

1897—Secretary of the Interior.

Secretary Bliss was a business man, and because of his business activities and success was chosen by President McKinley to be the head of the Department of the Interior, it being one of the great business departments of the government. In early life he went to New Orleans and entered the counting room of his stepfather, who was a prominent business man of the Crescent city. He did not remain long in the South, but returned to Boston, where he engaged in the commission business. Later he removed to New York to take charge of the business of the firm in that city.

He became a director in a large number of financial and industrial institutions, and was regarded as one of the successful business men of New York. He was a Republican in politics, taking much interest in party affairs, but was never an office-seeker. At one time he was offered the party nomination for governor of the state, but steadfastly refused to accept. He favored a high tariff and was a member of the "Protective League." In the political campaigns of 1892 and 1896 he was treasurer of the Republican National Committee. He held the office of Secretary of the Interior for about two years and then gave it up. The place was uncongenial to him and he retired to again engage in business affairs.

ETHAN ALLEN HITCHCOCK

ETHAN ALLEN HITCHCOCK—Secretary of the Interior from February 20, 1899, to March 4, 1907. Born in Mobile, Alabama, September 19, 1855. Educated at Military Academy, New Haven, Connecticut.

1897—Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Russia.
1898—Ambassador to Russia.
1899—Secretary of the Interior.

Secretary Hitchcock was a great grandson of the famous Ethan Allen, the Green Mountain hero. Removing from Mobile to Nashville, Tennessee, he attended the public schools of that city and then finished his education at the Military Institute at New Haven. Completing his studies there he returned to St. Louis, Missouri, to rejoin his family

which had removed to that city and engaged in mercantile pursuits. He spent some years in China still engaged in mercantile business. In 1874 he returned to the United States with a reputation as a most successful business man. It was because of his business reputation that President McKinley selected him to represent this country in Russia as envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary. The next year the rank was raised to that of ambassador.

Few men in America was more conversant with the economic and political conditions of Russia than was Mr. Hitchcock. In 1899 he returned to America to take a place in the cabinet of President McKinley as Secretary of the Interior. He served in this position eight years.

JAMES RUDOLPH GARFIELD

JAMES RUDOLPH GARFIELD—Secretary of the Interior from March 4, 1907, to March 4, 1909. Born at Hiram, Ohio, October 17, 1865. Son of James A. and Lucretia (Rudolph) Garfield. Educated at Williams College. Married, December 30, 1890, Miss Helen Newell.

1896—Member Ohio Senate.
1902—Member Civil Service Commission.
1903—Commissioner of Corporations of the Department of Commerce.
1907—Secretary of the Interior.

Secretary Garfield was a son of James A. Garfield, twentieth President of the United States. He was born soon after his father returned from his distinguished service in the Union Army during the Civil War. His father was then a member of the national House of Representatives and a leader in the Republican party in Ohio. Born almost in a whirlwind of politics he naturally took great interest in public affairs.

He was but sixteen years of age when his father fell at the hand of an assassin, a few months after he had taken the oath of office as President. James Rudolph, following in the footsteps of his father, studied law and entered actively upon its practice. In 1896 he was sent to the Ohio State Senate and established a reputation as a ready and successful debater.

He was an ardent advocate of reform in the civil service of the government and in 1902 was made a member of the Civil Service Commission. The next year he was put at the head of an important bureau in the Department of Commerce as commissioner of corporations. In that position he was successful in bringing the bureau up to a high standard of efficiency, making it useful to the business interests of the country and to the government. He stood high in the estimation of President Roosevelt, and when a vacancy occurred in the head of the Interior Department he promptly named Mr. Garfield to the place. He served during the remainder of President Roosevelt's term. Leaving the office on the accession of President Taft he returned to Cleveland and re-engaged in the practice of his profession.

RICHARD ACHILLES BALLINGER

RICHARD ACHILLES BALLINGER — Secretary of the Interior from March 5, 1909, to March 4, 1911. Born at Boonesboro, Iowa, July 9, 1858. Son of Colonel Richard and Mary E. Ballinger. Educated at the University of Kansas. Married, October 26, 1896, Miss Julia A. Bradley.

1896—United States Court Commissioner.
1902—Judge of the Superior Court of Jefferson county, Washington.
1904—Mayor of Seattle, Washington.
1907—Commissioner of the General Land Office, Washington, District of Columbia.
1909—Secretary of the Interior.

Adopting the law as his profession Mr. Ballinger might well have been called a roving practitioner for he practiced in a number of cities, finally locating at Seattle, Washington. Alaska was just then being exploited and reports of great coal and oil discoveries were floating about. There were also many contests over land entries in the state of Washington. Mr. Ballinger devoted most of his time to land entry practice.

He was very popular with the people, and after serving several years as United States Commissioner he was elected judge of the Superior Court for Jefferson county and then mayor of Seattle.

In 1907 he was appointed by President Roosevelt commissioner of the General Land Office in the Department of the Interior. He did not serve long in this position. He returned to Seattle and resumed the practice of his profession. He became the attorney for what is historically known as the "Cunningham Claims." These claims represented some thirty or more entries of coal claims in Alaska. The claims had been investigated and two reports made, one of them pronouncing the entries fraudulent and the other sustaining their validity. It was reported that the claims covered territory containing, or supposed to contain, more than sixty million tons of coal. The Guggenheim railroad interests were also involved.

While thus acting as the attorney for the Cunningham interests President Taft named him Secretary of the Interior to succeed Secretary Garfield. He had hardly taken his seat before a hot controversy arose with Gifford Pinchot, chief forester in the Department of Agriculture.

When Mr. Garfield was Secretary of the Interior he withdrew, at the suggestion of Chief Forester Pinchot, large tracts of Alaska lands from public entry. Soon after Mr. Ballinger became Secretary he cancelled this withdrawal and threw the lands open to entry. A hot protest to this was entered by Forester Pinchot, who claimed Secretary Ballinger had exceeded his authority in thus canceling the withdrawals and intimated it was done in the interest of the Guggenheim and Cunningham syndicates.

A most lively war in the newspapers followed, many of them charging the Secretary with corruption. His authority to cancel the withdrawals was upheld by the Attorney General, and at once a war on him opened up. For weeks Secretary Ballinger occupied the front page of many of the opposition papers. Finally Mr. Pinchot wrote a letter to a member of Congress advising a congressional investigation. This letter was regarded as a reflection upon President Taft, who immediately ordered the Secretary of Agriculture to peremptorily dismiss Mr. Pinchot from office.

This did not end the controversy, but rather intensified it. Mr. Pinchot was a gifted letter writer and he had a free entry into the columns of many of the leading journals. In Congress there was some angry talk about impeaching Secretary Ballinger, but at last the tempest blew itself out and Mr. Ballinger tendered his resignation as Secretary of the Interior, returning to Seattle to again engage in the practice of his profession.

WILLIAM LOWRIE FISHER

WILLIAM L. FISHER—Secretary of the Interior from March 11, 1911, to March 4, 1913. Born in Wheeling, Virginia (now West Virginia), July 4, 1862. Son of David W. and Amanda D. Fisher. Educated at Hanover College, Indiana.

1898—Special Assessment Counsel of Chicago.
1906—Special Traction Counsel of Chicago.
1911—Secretary of the Interior.

Mr. Fisher graduated from Hanover College, of which his father was president for nearly thirty years. After leaving college he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1888. He removed to Chicago and at once entered upon a most successful career as a lawyer. It was his legal equipment which led President Taft to call him to the head of the Department of the Interior, which was then under severe criticism in and out of Congress. He was a successful officer, bringing order out of what was near chaos. At the close of President Taft's administration Mr. Fisher returned to Chicago and again engaged in the practice of his profession.

FRANKLIN KNIGHT LANE

FRANKLIN KNIGHT LANE—Secretary of the Interior from March 5, 1913, to February 29, 1920. Born near Charlottestown, Prince Edward Island, Canada, July 15, 1864. Son of D. S. and C. W. Lane. Educated at the University of California. Married, April 11, 1893, Miss Annie Wintermute. Died May 18, 1921.

1917—Corporation Counsel of San Francisco.
1902—Unsuccessful candidate for Governor of California.
1903—Unsuccessful candidate for the United States Senate.
1905—Member Interstate Commerce Commission.
1913—Secretary of the Interior.

Mr. Lane on reaching early manhood adopted newspaper work for his occupation, but while engaged in this he studied law and was admitted to the California bar in 1889. He was almost immediately successful, and in 1897 was elected corporation counsel for the city of San Francisco, serving three terms.

All this time he was growing in the favor of his political party and in 1902 he was nominated by the Democrats for the office of governor. The campaign which followed was a very lively one but unsuccessful on the part of Mr. Lane. Later he was his party's candidate for the United States Senate, but was again unsuccessful.

In 1905 he was appointed by President Roosevelt a member of the Interstate Commerce Commission. At that time there was a stirring contest on the part of the railroads for an increased freight schedule. The hearings before the commission were long and exhaustive, Commissioner Lane taking an active part in the examination of witnesses. His services on the commission commended him to the good opinion of all who were interested in matters before that body by the careful and painstaking methods he pursued.

His nomination for Secretary of the Interior by President Wilson was greeted everywhere by commendations by the press and by public officials. He did not always agree with President Wilson, especially as to the entry of the United States in the proposed League of Nations. His administration of the department was eminently successful.

JOHN BARTON PAYNE

JOHN BARTON PAYNE—Secretary of the Interior from March 15, 1920, to March 4, 1921. Born in Pruntytown, Virginia (now West Virginia), January 26, 1855. Son of Dr. Amos and Elizabeth Barton (Smith) Payne. Educated in private schools. Married, May 1, 1913, Miss Jennie Byrd.

1880—Special Judge of the Circuit Court of Tucker county, West Virginia.
1882—Mayor of Kingwood, West Virginia.
1893—Judge of the Superior Court of Chicago, Illinois.
1917—General Counsel of the Shipping Board and Emergency Fleet Corporation.
1920—Secretary of the Interior.

After beginning the practice of law and building for himself a high reputation in that profession, serving as special judge of one of the West Virginia circuits and becoming one of the leaders of the Democratic party in his section, Mr. Payne moved to Chicago. His success there was early made evident by his being elected judge of the Superior Court of Cook county, in which Chicago is situated.

On the organization of the Shipping Board and the Emergency Fleet Corporation on the entrance of the United States into the World War,

Mr. Payne was appointed general counsel for the two. He was also general counsel for the railroad administration, of which former Secretary of the Treasury McAdoo was the head. On the resignation of Mr. Lane as head of the Department of the Interior, Mr. Payne was chosen as his successor by President Wilson.

ALBERT BACON FALL

ALBERT BACON FALL—Secretary of the Interior from March 5, 1921, to March 4, 1923. Born at Frankfort, Kentucky, November 26, 1861. Son of William R. and Edmonia (Taylor) Fall. Educated in the common schools. Married, May 7, 1883, Emma G. Morgan.

1898—Captain of a company in the war with Spain.
1912—United States Senator.
1921—Secretary of the Interior.

Mr. Fall had limited opportunities to secure an education, but intent on adopting the law for his life profession he taught school and worked at other things to earn the money to enable him to study law. He worked on a cattle ranch and in the mines; anywhere to earn the money needed. He did study law, giving especial attention to the laws of Mexico.

In New Mexico, where he had located for a permanent home, he rapidly grew in popularity among the people. He was a member of the New Mexico Legislature for several sessions; was an associate justice on the Supreme Court and attorney general of the state. In 1912 he was elected to the United States Senate, where he made a favorable impression. The Department of the Interior has much to do with the great West, as all the government lands are in that section, as are the great irrigating plants. In those matters Senator Fall was more deeply interested than in other branches of the government's activities. It was because of his special knowledge of such subjects he was chosen by President Harding for head of the Department of the Interior.

He was largely interested in ranch lands after a service in the department for two years. Soon after he had surrendered the office rumors began floating around that there had been corruption in leasing certain naval oil reserve lands made by the Department of the Interior, such lands having been put under the jurisdiction of that department by an executive order. The Senate ordered an inquiry. It was learned that the former secretary had borrowed from some source a large sum of money which he invested in ranch lands. This led to a belief that he was influenced by this loan to favor the parties to whom the leases were granted.

A long hearing by the committee was followed by an indictment of the former secretary and some of the lessees. Suit was also began by the United States to cancel the leases, charging they had been obtained by fraud.

Hubert Work

HUBERT WORK

HUBERT WORK—Postmaster General from March 5, 1922, to March 4, 1923; Secretary of the Interior from March 4, 1923. Born in Indiana county, Pennsylvania, July 3, 1860. Son of Moses Thompson and Tabitha Logan (Van Horn) Work. Educated in the State Normal School. Married, in 1887, Miss Laura M. Arbuckle.

1921—First Assistant Postmaster General.
1922—Postmaster General.
1923—Secretary of the Interior.

A physician in private life, who attained the highest honor in his profession by serving as president of the American Medical Association, Secretary of the Interior Hubert Work never held public office until he was appointed First Assistant Postmaster General in April, 1921. From this post he was elevated to the position of Postmaster General in March, 1922, by the late President Harding and in March, 1923, he became Secretary of the Interior.

Secretary Work was born on a farm in Indiana county, Pennsylvania, on July 3, 1860. During his early youth he worked as a farmhand both for his father and for his neighbors. He attended the public schools and the Indiana (Pennsylvania) State Normal School, continuing to work on the farm during the summer vacations. In 1882 he matriculated at the University of Michigan and spent two years there as a medical student. In 1884 he entered the University of Pennsylvania and was graduated the following year as doctor of medicine.

Completing his education, Secretary Work left home and went West to make his own way in the world. He began the practice of medicine at Greeley, Colorado, where he administered to the sick of the rural districts for miles around. Later he moved to Fort Morgan and finally settled at Pueblo, Colorado. In 1896 he founded the Woodcroft Hospital for mental and nervous diseases and operated it until 1918, when he retired from the active practice of medicine to enter the army.

He volunteered his services in the medical corps. Commissioned a major he was assigned by Surgeon General Gorgas to the staff of Provost Marshal General Crowder, where he served as liaison officer between these two branches with direct supervision of the medical features of the draft. He was promoted to the rank of lieutenant colonel and later advanced to the grade of colonel in the medical corps.

During his professional career, extending over a period of thirty-two years, Secretary Work served at various times as president of the Colorado State Medical Society; member of the Colorado State Board of Health; president of the American Medico-Psychological Society, and president of the American Medical Association.

A staunch and life-long Republican, Secretary Work was ever active in his party organization both state and national. He was a delegate at large from Colorado to the Republican National Convention in 1908;

chairman of the Colorado Republican state committee in 1912, and Republican national committeeman for Colorado from 1913 to 1919.

Mr. Work had hardly got warm in his seat as First Assistant Postmaster General when he was elevated to the head of that great department of the government. He had mapped out some lines he deemed would work to the betterment of the service but had not had time to put his ideas to the test of actual trial. Promoted to the head of the department, he began actively to put his reforms into execution when he was transferred to the Department of the Interior. Among the first of his announcements was: "In order to conduct the department without any submerged or hidden issues, but with a frank exposition of all actions deemed essential to public interests, an 'open door policy' would be followed."

Entrances to the office of the Secretary were thrown open and the Secretary could readily be reached by any person having business with him without having to undergo a limited "third degree" investigation by some subordinate. This brought about not only an accommodation to the public but also an increased efficiency and economy in the conduct of the public business.

The first really comprehensive study of policy and methods of reclaiming arid and semi-arid lands was started on September 10, 1923. In carrying out a plan for a thorough reorganization of government reclamation, the name of the bureau was changed from the "Reclamation Service" to the "Bureau of Reclamation"; a field commissioner of reclamation was appointed; a complete reassignment of the duties of the bureau was made, the functions of the bureau being divided between the field commissioner, who was given control over all matters pertaining to operation, lands, crop production, industrial betterment and other reforms in the methods, all looking to expediting the service, have been gradually instituted in every bureau of the department.

Secretary Work introduced a new feature in the administration of the department which he thinks will work for good. He had two objects in view—one to draw the public into more intimate relations with the functions of the department, the other to introduce newer and more modern methods of transacting business into the several bureaus. He found when he took charge of the bureau, as others had found before him, that it is a difficult matter to introduce new methods. The loyalty and affection for old methods and precedents on the part of employees of the department is truly touching. Precedent is the deity at whose feet they worship with a devotion that is almost abject. In his last report the Secretary said of this adhesion to precedent: "Decentralization applied to the Indian Bureau would be conscientiously resisted behind the refuge of 'It cannot be done that way,' or 'We have always done it this way.' Precedent may be good or bad, may lead to evolution or involution, but new precedents must be established for new visions."

As to the causes which led him to introduce the new feature, he said in his report for 1924:

Each bureau of this department was found, two years ago, to be operating as an independent unit of government, with complete divisions, some of them duplicating functions of others. There were duplicated law officers, boards of appeal, disbursing officers and libraries. The books in the department's law libraries, in duplicate and triplicate, numbered twenty-four thousand one hundred and twenty-two. There were separate units handling business relating to health, education, irrigation, oil and gas, publications, purchases and supplies, accounting and auditing, contracts, engineering, drafting, editing, motor vehicles, mimeographing and multigraphing, personnel, inspection, property accounting, map making, photographing, addressographing, photostating and traffic.

Progress toward co-ordinating activities has been made during the fiscal year, but much of the duplication is compelled by specific legislation or appropriation, leaving little administrative option in merging similar activities or shifting them from one bureau to another in the same department. There must be more latitude allowed by law in the administration of the department's bureaus to insure the highest efficiency.

There are two avenues of administration open to a Secretary of the Interior—by bureaus or through bureaus.

The one offering least resistance is for the Secretary to consent to an independent administration of unrelated activities by its bureaus, independent of a covering policy. The other alternative requires the active working interest of the Secretary in bureau and departmental co-ordination.

Bringing bureau chiefs into departments from the business world by presidential appointment is the safeguard of civil service efficiency. It joins the public's necessities, which the government serves, to the technical routine of the service, which experience has taught to civil service employees who necessarily have been excluded and secluded from the business world and its methods.

But it is not possible for the head of a bureau to reorganize it alone. His exacting daily duties and the conscientious objections of employees to change of methods with which they have grown familiar, compel the Secretary to join with him and invite in men active in the ultimate application of bureau rulings in business, to co-ordinate the government's activities with the business world.

The results of this policy employed during the past two years in the Interior Department have amply justified the practice, and the disposition of active men in business to assist cheerfully without compensation is a grateful reassurance to the government.

As an illustration of his innovation, for the purpose of simplifying the methods of procedure and expediting business in the Patent Office a special committee consisting of leading representatives of patent bar associations throughout the country, industrial organizations and the engineering profession was organized. The services of its members are being rendered without remuneration in the interest of public service. The same method was followed in regard to each of the other bureaus.

J. M. RUSK
EX-SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE

JAMES WILSON
EX-SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE

HENRY C. WALLACE
EX-SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE

GEORGE B. CORTELYOU
EX-SECRETARY OF COMMERCE
AND LABOR

OSCAR S. STRAUSS
EX-SECRETARY OF COMMERCE
AND LABOR

The Department of Agriculture

THIS, ONE OF THE MOST IMPORTANT of the ten executive departments of the government, has had a rather unique history. It was finally born out of the necessities of the vast army engaged in tilling the soil. From the first organization of the government agriculture has been the chief source of the wealth of the nation, but the government was slow in recognizing the great advance which might be made in the science of agriculture by a properly directed effort on the part of the government. This government aid was suggested from time to time but nothing definite was attempted until 1839, when Hon. Henry L. Ellsworth, Commissioner of Patents, recommended an appropriation of one thousand dollars for "the collection of agricultural statistics, investigation promoting agricultural and rural economy, and the procurement of cuttings and seeds for gratuitous distribution among farmers," a recommendation that was reluctantly granted by Congress. This was the beginning of the present great department, now employing more than twenty thousand paid employees and a large number of voluntary weather observers, correspondents of the various scientific divisions and of the division of statistics, and the expending annually of many millions.

As early as 1836 Commissioner Ellsworth distributed at his own expense to enterprising farmers throughout the country, without government authority, considerable quantities of seeds and many plants which he received from government representatives abroad. On the appropriation of the one thousand dollars mentioned an agricultural section was established in the Patent Office, which was then a part of the State Department. The work of the section was placed under the direction of the Commissioner of Patents.

In 1849, when the Department of the Interior was established, the Patent Office with its division of agriculture was transferred to the new department. From that time until 1862, when the Bureau of Agriculture was established, the agricultural work was done by the chief of the section of agriculture in the Patent Office. There was

much confusion for a time in giving a proper designation to the new bureau. It was sometimes officially designted as a "department" and sometimes as a "bureau." Under its new organization it was placed under the direction of a "Commissioner of Agriculture," but remained as a bureau in the Interior Department independent of the head of the department.

In 1889 the Bureau of Agriculture was raised to the dignity of an executive department and its activities greatly widened and increased. It is divided into a number of bureaus, offices, divisions and sections, comprising the Weather Bureau, the Bureau of Animal Industry, Division of Statistics, Section of Foreign Markets, Office of Experiment Stations, Office of Plant Industry, Division of Gardens and Grounds, Division of Vegetable Physiology and Pathology, Section of Seed and Plant Introduction; Division of Botany, of Pomology, of Agrostology, of Chemistry, of Soils, of Biological Survey, of Entomology, of Forestry, of Public Roads, of Inquiries, of Seeds, and of Publications.

It issues annually many millions of copies of bulletins and other publications in the interest of agriculture, and introduces many new plants and seeds.

The department was not authorized to adopt a seal until 1894. The seal consists of the national shield, bearing a shock of corn and a plow and surrounded by numerous stars. Around the shield are the words "DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE," and beneath the words "Agriculture is the foundation of manufacture and commerce."

The scope and activities of the Department of Agriculture are world wide. It has one great interest in view—aiding the American farmer, and thereby aiding in some degree every American citizen. Perhaps no one better understood its importance and helpfulness than did Henry C. Wallace, who died while serving at the head of the department. In the last report prepared by him is the following:

> The foreign service of the department is intimately bound up with its work as a whole. Successful farming means just as much successful marketing as successful production. Hence the farmer is vitally interested in everything influencing the foreign demand for his products. Since the principal outlet for the exportable surplus of our agricultural commodities is Europe, the department has built up a large organization to assemble information about the conditions our farmers have to meet in the European market. It also keeps in touch with agricultural production in the principal food-exporting countries.
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> The department has one hundred and fifty-four employees in Alaska and our insular possessions and eighty-two in foreign countries outside American jurisdiction. Most of these representatives of the department study the physical and biological problems of agriculture. Expermient stations are maintained in Alaska, Hawaii, the Philippine Islands, the Virgin Islands and Porto Rico, where scientists study problems of soil and climate and animal and plant diseases. Scientific workers search the world for new varieties of plants. They seek new methods of breeding and cultivation, and new methods of combating diseases and pests. They protect the interests of the American farmer in a great variety of ways. Investigations are now under way regarding potato varieties in Canada, plant diseases in Europe, rubber

production in South America and tropical North America, forage grasses in Cuba, cotton and corn in Mexico, plant geography in Europe, cereal rust in India, Egypt and the Orient, citrus-fruit culture in Japan, plant and seed introduction in Algeria, China and Egypt, corn in Brazil and Argentina, forest pathology in Great Britain, and many other matters of concern to agriculture.

Another group of department workers in foreign countries has to do with the business operations of agriculture. These men investigate market conditions in countries that absorb our surplus cotton, wheat and meat. They gather information regarding available supplies, crop acreage and production, demand and economic conditions generally in foreign countries. They also promote our foreign trade in agricultural products by the administration of grades and standards, by developing new standards, and by fostering better trade relationships between foreign consumers and American producers. The department's economic work in Europe is under the direction of an assistant chief of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics who is stationed at Berlin. General administration of the work is conducted from London and Berlin. From London an agricultural commissioner surveys the situation in Great Britain, France and Spain. Another commissioner at Berlin looks after the work in Germany, Poland, Scandinavia, Holland and Belgium. A former employee of the department is the permanent delegate at Rome of the International Institute of Agriculture. He co-operates with the department. Although technically an organ of the Department of State, the International Institute of Agriculture serves as an arm of the Department of Agriculture.

Offices also are maintained at Vienna, where economists and statisticians watch the development of agriculture in the Danube Basin and in Southern Russia. Another office at Marseille, France, maintains a research laboratory for combating insect pests. Men handling economic work are also attached to the Marseille office. A commissioner of agriculture at Buenos Aires has charge of investigations into South American competition in cereals, animal products and fruits. Many laws exist directing the department to investigate and expand foreign markets for American agricultural products. The first of these laws was passed in 1883. In 1914 Congress established in the department an office of markets to foster general marketing and distribution of farm products, and in 1921 the department was authorized and given funds "to collect and disseminate to American producers, importers, exporters and other interested persons information relative to the world supply of and need for American agricultural products * * *."

In building up its foreign service to comply with this provision of Congress, the department has co-operated with the Department of State. A center of the co-operative service is the International Institute of Agriculture at Rome. Through this institute information is collected by wire and mail from all the leading crop producing and consuming countries of the world. Nearly a third of the foreign information received by the department comes through the institute. Four hundred consuls of the State Department scattered over the world collect information not covered by the work of the International Institute. About twenty-one per cent of the department's foreign information originates with the consuls. Altogether, therefore, a full half of the foreign investigational and reporting work of the department is done through its affiliation with the Department of State. The department has also entered into reciprocal arrangements with foreign ministers of agriculture and with other organizations abroad for the exchange of economic information. About ten per cent of its foreign data comes from these sources. Nearly an equal amount of valuable information concerning agriculture abroad comes from the commercial attaches of the Department of Commerce.

During the last four years an agricultural commissioner in London has reported on market conditions in the United Kingdom, the most important market for American farm products. A specialist in marketing meats was sent to the United Kingdom in February, 1922, to make a survey of conditions affecting the British demand for our pork and lard. This survey was extended to methods of produc-

tion and marketing in Denmark and Scandinavian countries, which compete with the United States in the British market. Later an agricultural commissioner was sent to Germany, the second most important market for our farm products.

The opening of the British market to American fresh pork has been accomplished by the department. Before the spring of 1922 Great Britain excluded American fresh pork, but since that time has admitted it under certification by our government that the pork has been handled in the manner prescribed by British authorities. Since this arrangement British imports of both fresh and frozen pork have largely increased. In 1922 Germany was persuaded to allow the importation of several additional American-cured pork cuts. The Netherlands also has been persuaded recently to accept fresh pork through the combined efforts of the Department of Agriculture and the Department of State.

To remove prejudice from the minds of European consumers, a moving-picture film entitled "The Honor of the Little Purple Stamp," showing methods of handling and inspecting meat, has been circulated among hygienic and meat-inspection societies of England, France and Germany. Another film intended to remove prejudice against American pork has been produced by the department for exhibition in Austria, Czechoslovakia and Germany.

Roster of Secretaries of Agriculture

Norman J. Colman, of Missouri.
From February 13, 1889, to March 4, 1889.

Jeremiah McLain Rusk, of Wisconsin.
From March 5, 1889, to March 5, 1893.

Julius Sterling Morton, of Nebraska.
From March 7, 1893, to March 5, 1897.

James Wilson, of Iowa.
From March 5, 1897, to March 5, 1913.

David Franklin Houston, of Texas.
From March 5, 1913, to February 1, 1920.

Edwin Thomas Meredith, of Iowa.
From February 2, 1920, to March 4, 1921.

Henry Cantwell Wallace, of Iowa.
From March 6, 1921, to October 25, 1924.

Howard M. Gore, of West Virginia.
From November 22, 1924, to March 4, 1925.

William Marion Jardine, of Kansas.
From March 5, 1925.

Norman J. Colman was Chief of the Bureau of Agriculture in the Department of the Interior when the Department of Agriculture was established and was made its Secretary, serving about twenty days.

David Franklin Houston was transferred from the Agricultural Department to that of the Treasury Department by President Wilson.

Henry Cantwell Wallace died in office.

Biographies of Secretaries of Agriculture

Norman Jay Colman

Norman Jay Colman—Secretary of Agriculture from February 13, 1889, to March 4, 1889. Born near Richfield Springs, Otsego county, New York, May 16, 1827. Academic education.

1885—Commissioner of Agriculture.
1889—Secretary of Agriculture.
1865—Member Missouri Legislature.
1874—Lieutenant Governor of Missouri.

Mr. Colman was born on a farm and spent his earlier years in farm labor. At the age of twenty he removed to Louisville, Kentucky, where he studied law. On being admitted to the bar he entered upon the practice at New Albany, Indiana, where he was for a time a partner of Michael C. Kerr, afterward Speaker of the national House of Representatives. In 1852 he removed to St. Louis, Missouri, and established *Colman's Rural World,* which soon became one of the leading agricultural papers of the country. He took an active part in every movement for the benefit of the farmer. In 1885 he was made commissioner of agriculture in the Department of the Interior. Here he gave a new impetus to the work of the bureau and greatly enlarged its usefulness. It was while he was serving as commissioner the law was enacted for the creation of the Department of Agriculture. He was made the first Secretary of the department, only a few days before the expiration of the administration of President Cleveland.

Jeremiah McLain Rusk

Jeremiah McLain Rusk—Secretary of Agriculture from March 5, 1889, to March 5, 1893. Born in Morgan county, Ohio, June 17, 1830. Limited education. Died at Viroqua, Wisconsin, November 21, 1893.

1862—Member Wisconsin Legislature.
1862—Major Wisconsin Regiment in Civil War.
1863—Lieutenant Colonel in Civil War.
1865—Brevet Brigadier General.
1866—Bank Controller, Wisconsin.
1871—Member national House of Representatives.
1882—Governor of Wisconsin.
1889—Secretary of Agriculture.

Born on a farm Mr. Rusk had limited opportunities for an education, but he made the most of such opportunities as were presented. At the age of twenty-three years he removed from Ohio to Wisconsin and again engaged in farming. He filled a number of local offices and when

the Civil War came offered his services. He was made major of the twenty-fifth Wisconsin volunteers. He was a gallant soldier and a meritorious officer. He was promoted to lieutenant colonel and so served until the end of the war, being mustered out June 7, 1865.

For gallant and meritorious services he was brevetted colonel and brigadier general. Returning to his home at the close of the war he again resumed his occupation as a farmer. A year later he was made bank controller of the state, serving two terms. In 1871 he was sent to Congress and re-elected, serving two terms. In 1882 he was elected governor of the state and served in that high office seven years, when he was called into the cabinet of President Benjamin Harrison as Secretary of Agricuture. This was a new department. In the closing days of President Cleveland's term Congress enacted a law erecting the Bureau of Agriculture in the Department of the Interior into an executive department. At that time Norman J. Colman, of Missouri, was at the head of the bureau and President Cleveland named him to head the new department. He served about twenty days until President Cleveland went out of office. Secretary Rusk organized the department and started it on the great work it has since pursued.

JULIUS STERLING MORTON

JULIUS S. MORTON—Secretary of Agriculture from March 7, 1893, to March 5, 1897. Born in Jefferson county, New York, April 27, 1832. Educated at Ann Arbor University.

1854—Member Territorial Legislature of Nebraska.
1893—Secretary of Agriculture.

When Mr. Morton was but two years of age his parents removed to Michigan and it was in that state he received his education. In 1854 he removed to the territory of Nebraska and engaged in newspaper work and that same year was elected a member of the territorial legislature. In 1862 he was an unsusccessful candidate for delegate to Congress, and in 1866 he was the Democratic candidate for governor, but was defeated by the narrow margin of one hundred and forty-five votes. For several years he was the standing candidate for governor, but never was successful in securing an election. He ever took an active interest in agricultural matters and was the author of the law providing for an annual tree planting that was first enacted by the Michigan Legislature and is now the law in all the states.

JAMES WILSON

JAMES WILSON—Secretary of Agriculture from March 5, 1897, to March 5, 1913. Born in Ayrshire, Scotland, August 16, 1835. Son of John and Jean (McCosh) Wilson. Educated at Iowa College. Married Miss Esther Wilbur.

1861—Member Iowa State Legislature.
1864—Speaker Iowa House of Representatives.
1873—Member national House of Representatives.
1879—Member Iowa Railroad Commission.
1891—Director Agricultural Experiment Station and Professor of Agriculture in Iowa University.
1897—Secretary of Agriculture.

Mr. Wilson has the unique record of serving a longer time as a member of the cabinet than any other man. He served full sixteen years under three Presidents—McKinley, Roosevelt and Taft. The next longest record is that of Gideon Granger, who served nearly fourteen years as Postmaster General under Presidents Jefferson and Madison. William Wirt served as Attorney General twelve years under Presidents Monroe and John Quincy Adams. Hugh McCulloch served as Secretary of the Treasury under three Presidents—Lincoln, Johnson and Arthur —but only about eight years in all.

The parents of Mr. Wilson emigrated to this country in 1852 and located first in Norwich, Connecticut. Later they removed to Traer, Tama county, Iowa, where his father engaged in farming. This pursuit the son followed for a number of years. In fact, he claimed it to be his vocation up to his death, although he was in the public service for much of his life.

He served three terms in the Iowa Legislature, being speaker of the House during the last term. In 1873 he was sent to Congress and was re-elected for another term. A few years later he was again a candidate for Congress and received the certificate. His election was contested by his Democratic opponent, who was finally awarded the seat on the last day of the session.

Retiring from Congress Mr. Wilson became professor of agriculture in the Iowa State College. He was called to a cabinet seat by President McKinley in 1897 and held a seat at the cabinet table until the accession of President Wilson. During his service as head of the Agricultural Department he greatly extended its activities.

DAVID FRANKLIN HOUSTON

DAVID FRANKLIN HOUSTON—Secretary of Agriculture from March 5, 1913, to February 1, 1920; Secretary of the Treasury from February 2, 1920, to March 4, 1921. Born in Monroe, North Carolina, February 17, 1866. Son of William Henry and Cornelia Ann (Stevens) Houston. Educated at South Carolina College. Married, December 11, 1895, Miss Helen Beall.

1888—Superintendent City Schools of Spartansburg, South Carolina.
1913—Secretary of Agriculture.
1920—Secretary of the Treasury.

Mr. Houston's first occupation was that of teacher. He served for some time as tutor of the ancient languages in the South Carolina College. Teaching was practically his sole occupation until he was named by President Wilson as Secretary of Agriculture. He was professor and dean of the faculty of the Texas University and chancellor of the Washington University at St. Louis.

He was a student of the agricultural resources of the country, and while taking no very active part in party politics was also a student of civic affairs, especially of our national government under the Constitution. Unfortunately for him the conditions in Europe were so disturbed by the war which came in 1914 that as secretary of this great department of the government he was unable to give that thought and study to farming conditions abroad as he had desired to do when taking office.

He remained at the head of this department until February, 1920, when he was transferred to the Department of the Treasury to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Secretary Glass. In that position he served during the remainder of the term of President Wilson.

EDWIN THOMAS MEREDITH

EDWIN THOMAS MEREDITH—Secretary of Agriculture from February 2, 1920, to March 4, 1921. Born at Avoca, Iowa, December 23, 1876. Son of Thomas Oliver and Minnie Minerva (Marsh) Meredith. Educated at Highland Park College. Married, January 8, 1896, Miss Edna C. Elliot.

1916—Unsuccessful candidate for Governor of Iowa.
1917—Member Board of Excess Profits Advisers.
1919—Member Industrial Group at Peace Negotiations.
1920—Secretary of Agriculture.

Mr. Meredith's love was farming and everything pertaining to agricultural life entranced him. As editor of the *Farmers' Bulletin*, of Des Moines, Iowa, he became known to the leading agriculturists of Iowa and the neighboring states. Later he established a paper of his own, giving it the name *Successful Farming*. This paper in a short time made him favorably known to agriculturists in all parts of the country. He was a warm advocate of educated farming and urged that with great ardor in his paper.

He did not confine his activities to editing and publishing his paper, but diversified them. He was a director of the Federal Reserve Bank at Chicago, director United States Chamber of Commerce, president of the American Advertisers' Club and during the war a member of the Council of Defense and of the Federal Board of Vocational Education. As Secretary of Agriculture he won the confidence of the farmers of the country and was held in high esteem by them.

HENRY CANTWELL WALLACE

HENRY CANTWELL WALLACE—Secretary of Agriculture from March 6, 1921, to October 25, 1924. Born at Rock Island, Illinois, May 11, 1866. Son of Henry and Nannie (Cantwell) Wallace. Educated at Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. Married, November 24, 1887, Miss Carrie May Broadhead. Died in Washington, District of Columbia, October 25, 1924.

1921—Secretary of Agriculture.

Mr. Wallace removed with his parents from Illinois to Iowa and he began fitting himself for a collegiate education. Living on a farm he became deeply interested in agriculture and when prepared for college he matriculated at the Iowa Agricultural College, where he completed two years of the course in one year.

Called home to assist his father in the management of his farm he pursued his studies in the interval of farm work. He was out of the college for about five years when he again became a student there and completed the whole course in one year. After receiving his degree he once more took up the active work on the farm, becoming a breeder of pure-bred livestock. In 1893 he was called to the Iowa State College as professor of dairying. He wrote much for papers devoted to agriculture and for some time was editor of the *Creamery Gazette*. He established *Wallace's Farmer* in 1895, a paper that soon became an authority on all matters connected with agricultural interests.

He was active in civic affairs and those of the Young Men's Christian Association. Mr. Wallace's activities extended over the whole agricultural belt, however. He was a member of the executive committee of the United States Livestock Industry Commission, and for fourteen years was secretary of the Corn Belt Meat Producers' Association. He was permanent chairman of the National Shippers' Conference.

During the war Mr. Wallace was active as a member of the National War Work Council of the Young Men's Christian Association and took a particularly prominent part in Iowa committees of the Young Men's Christian Association. He was a member of the United Presbyterian Church and a Free Mason.

When President Harding announced the selection of Mr. Wallace as head of the Department of Agriculture it received the commendation of the agricultural interests with hardly an exception. His administration of the department was successful in all points and his death was sincerely regretted. When Secretary of the Interior Fall proposed the transfer to his department the national forest reserves Secretary Wallace so strongly opposed it that he finally won out. Seemingly he was guided by one idea alone, that of improving agriculture in the United States and to better the condition of those engaged in farming.

Under Secretary Wallace's administration, while productive research was continued, it was recognized that net profits to the farmers were

Howard M. Gore

of greater importance in maintaining a permanent agriculture, hence that marketing, based on intelligent market conditions, was the foundation of success.

Under previous administrations information had been sent out to the farmers by mail and, later, by radio, from day to day, showing daily market prices, but Mr. Wallace recognized that that was too late to guide the farmers in planning their crops or in their stock breeding. The farmers needed to know the world conditions before they decided what crops to sow or what line of stock to breed. Hence he established systems to procure from consuls and other sources throughout the world such information as to crop and supply conditions six months ahead of harvest, or meat conditions a year in advance. These data were sent broadcast over the land in time to be of real aid to farmers and breeders. All lines of farm economics were carefully studied. Stress was laid upon sane co-operation and a recognition of the interdependence of agriculture with other enterprises.

HOWARD M. GORE

HOWARD M. GORE—Secretary of Agriculture from November 22, 1924, to March 4, 1925. Born near Clarksburg, Virginia (now West Virginia), October 12, 1877. Son of Solomon D. and Marietta P. (Rogers) Gore. Educated at West Virginia University. Married Roxilene C. Bailey.

1923—Assistant Secretary of Agriculture.
1924—Secretary of Agriculture.
1925—Governor of West Virginia.

Howard M. Gore, Secretary of Agriculture of the United States, was born on a farm located three miles north of Clarksburg, West Virginia. With the exception of four years spent at the West Virginia University, where he graduated with the degree of bachelor of arts, Secretary Gore has spent his life as a farmer and livestock raiser and has been intimately associated with agricultural development in his home state. He is still extensively interested in farming operations, although the work for the time being is being conducted by members of his family.

For years Secretary Gore and members of his family have been prominently identified with the livestock industry of their state. It was back in 1778 that his mother's people first came to the bluegrass section of West Virginia. His father's family settled there somewhat later, in 1842. During the twenty years prior to 1921, when Secretary Gore first took an active interest in public life, he was a producer of cattle, hogs, sheep and horses. Until beef exports from this country fell off, much of his finished livestock was shipped to foreign countries where it sold at a premium.

Besides being an exhibitor of pure-bred livestock at county and state fairs, Secretary Gore has been intimately identified with livestock ex-

hibitions and development in many parts of the country. As a recognition for his work and interest in the welfare of the livestock industry from a national point of view, he was made a life member of the International Livestock Exposition and has taken an active part in its program for several years. He has served terms as president of livestock associations in West Virginia and has been very active in local and national farm organization work in recent years. He was a member of the Committee of Fifteen named by the American Farm Bureau Federation to study livestock marketing conditions and has a wide acquaintance with range and market cattlemen extending over a period of years.

At the request of national farm organizations, Secretary Gore went to Washington in the fall of 1921 as an official of the Packers and Stockyards Administration of the United States Department of Agriculture. This marked his first entry into public life. In his official capacity in the Administration of the Packers and Stockyards Act he was frequently called upon to act as arbitrator in cases between the department and agencies coming under the provisions of the law. One of the last pieces of work for which he was credited before leaving the Packers and Stockyards Administration was to act as one of two arbitrators in a case involving rates for selling livestock at four of the principal markets. The decision in this case resulted in the annual saving to livestock producers of several hundred thousand dollars.

On September 17, 1923, Mr. Gore was appointed Assistant Secretary of Agriculture by President Coolidge upon recommendation of Secretary Henry C. Wallace to fill the vacancy left by Assistant Secretary C. W. Pugsley. It was only a little more than a year after Mr. Gore assumed the office of Assistant Secretary that the people of his state elected him governor of West Virginia. Upon the death of Secretary Wallace on October 25, 1924, Mr. Gore immediately gave up his campaign as Republican candidate for governor of his state and went to Washington, where he assumed duties as Acting Secretary of the Department of Agriculture. On November 22 he was appointed Secretary of Agriculture by President Coolidge.

Although Secretary Gore has spent most of his life in actual farm operations on a comparatively large scale, he has found time to associate himself with farm organization work. When named Assistant Secretary of Agriculture he was indorsed by practically every farm organization in the country. This same expression came from farm organizations at the time he was appointed Secretary. He is perhaps particularly known for his work in connection with the establishment and organization of farm boys' and girls' clubs. This movement, which got its original start in an organized way in West Virginia, has since spread to all parts of the country and has expanded until at the present time in the neighborhood of five hundred thousand boys and girls are actively interested.

WILLIAM MARION JARDINE

WILLIAM MARION JARDINE—Secretary of Agriculture from March 5, 1925. Born in Oneida county, Idaho, January 16, 1879. Son of William and Rebecca J. Jardine. Educated in graded schools and University of Illinois. Married, September 6, 1905, Effie Nebeker.

1907—Assistant Cerealist of the Department of Agriculture.
1924—Member Agricultural Conference. Appointed by President Coolidge.
1925—Secretary of Agriculture.

Born on a farm, Mr. Jardine spent his first twenty years in that line of industry. Agriculture, with all its adjuncts, has been the main study of his life. He has been a teacher of the science and a lecturer for more than twenty years. The following is a brief resume of his activities in that direction:

Assistant, department of agronomy, 1904; instructor, 1905; professor, 1905 and 1906, Agricultural College of Utah; assistant cerealist of the United States Department of Agriculture, in charge of dry land grain investigation, 1907 to 1910; agronomist, Kansas State Agricultural College and Experiment Station, July, 1910; lecturer, Graduate School of Agriculture, Michigan Agricultural College, 1912; acting director of Experiment Station and dean of agriculture, January 1 to April 1, 1913; director of Experiment Station and dean of agriculture, 1913-1918, and president, March 1, 1918, to March 4, 1925; member of President's Agricultural Conference, 1924-1925. Is a member of Rock Creek and Potomac Parkway Commission, National Forest Reservation Commission, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Federal Power Commission and War Finance Corporation; member of Cosmos Club (Washington) and Kansas Authors' Club; author of numerous papers and bulletins on dry farming and crop production; member and chairman of the Agricultural Production Committee, Kansas State Council of Defense, 1917; fellow of the American Association of the Academy of Science; president of the International Dry Farming Congress and Soil Products Exposition, 1915-1916; American Society of Agronomy, 1916-1917; member of the executive board of the National Research Council; advisory council of the Agricultural Commission of American Bankers' Association; Mason and Rotarian; member of Sigma Xi, Beta Theta Pi, Alpha Zeta, Phi Kappa Phi, Gamma Sigma Delta.

The Department of Commerce and Labor

THE DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN COMMERCE of the country early became a prime factor in the administration of the government. Added to this some of the departments were overcrowded with the various activities that from time to time had been added and it was felt that a new executive department should be created. About the same time the question of labor in this country was also becoming one of the perplexing problems. It was at first thought the two matters of commerce and labor could well be handled by one department. The matter was taken up seriously by Congress and in 1902 a measure was proposed establishing a new department to be known as the Department of Commerce and Labor. It finally passed both houses of Congress and was approved February 14, 1903.

Section 3 of the act provided "that it shall be the province and duty of said department to foster, promote and develop the foreign and domestic commerce, the mining, manufacturing, shipping and fishing industries, the labor interests and the transportation facilities of the United States." To accomplish this various bureaus, offices and branches under the control of some of the other departments were placed under that of the new department, as follows:

"The following named offices, bureaus, divisions and branches of the public service, now and heretofore under the jurisdiction of the Department of the Treasury, and all that pertains to the same, known as the Lighthouse Board, the Lighthouse Establishment, the Steamboat Inspection Service, the Bureau of Navigation, the United States shipping commissioners, the National Bureau of Standards, the Coast and Geodetic Survey, the Commissioner General of Immigration, the commissioners of immigration, the Bureau of Immigration, the immigration service at large, and the Bureau of Statistics, be, and the same hereby are, transferred from the Department of the Treasury to the Department of Commerce and Labor, and the same shall hereafter remain under the jurisdiction and supervision of the last-named de-

partment; and that the Census Office, and all that pertains to the same, be, and the same hereby is, transferred from the Department of the Interior to the Department of Commerce and Labor, to remain henceforth under the jurisdiction of the latter; that the Department of Labor, the Fish Commission, and the Office of Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries, and all that pertains to the same, be, and the same hereby are, placed under the jurisdiction and made a part of the Department of Commerce and Labor; that the Bureau of Foreign Commerce, now in the Department of State, be, and the same hereby is, transferred to the Department of Commerce and Labor and consolidated with and made a part of the Bureau of Statistics, hereinbefore transferred from the Department of the Treasury to the Department of Commerce and Labor, and the two shall constitute one bureau, to be called the Bureau of Statistics, with a chief of the bureau; and that the Secretary of Commerce and Labor shall have control of the work of gathering and distributing statistical information naturally relating to the subjects confided to his department; and the Secretary of Commerce and Labor is hereby given the power and authority to rearrange the statistical work of the bureaus and offices confided to said department and to consolidate any of the statistical bureaus and offices transferred to said department; and said Secretary shall also have authority to call upon other departments of the government for statistical data and results obtained by them; the said Secretary of Commerce and Labor may collate, arrange and publish such statistical information so obtained in such manner as to him may seem wise."

The act provided for the organization in the department of a bureau to be called the "Bureau of Manufactures." This bureau was to foster, promote and develop the various manufacturing industries of the country, and markets for the same, at home and abroad. To aid the bureau foreign consuls are required to make reports. A Bureau of Corporations was also provided for. Among the powers and duties of this bureau was that of investigation into the organization, conduct and management of the business of any corporation, joint stock company or corporate combination engaged in commerce among the several states and with foreign nations. From this power common carriers were excepted.

The control over the fur seal, salmon and other fisheries of Alaska and over the immigration of aliens was taken from the Department of the Treasury and given to the Department of Commerce and Labor.

In 1913 the name of the department was changed from the Department of Commerce and Labor to that of Department of Commerce.

As the Department of Agriculture ransacks the world for forage and food plants and seeds in the interest of the farmers of the United States, so the Department of Commerce ransacks all civilized nations in the interest of the producers of America. It has so interwoven itself

with the business interests of the country that it is now regarded by all classes as one of the most important branches of the government.

It requires a large force of experts to answer the inquiries that flow into it daily. Those inquiries average a million and a quarter annually, and are on all imaginable subjects connected with business. They come from all classes—importers, exporters, manufacturers, farmers and merchants.

If a costly bridge is to be built anywhere, the knowledge of it no sooner reaches the public than it is wafted to the Department of Commerce, and by it carried on to manufacturers of iron and steel, to producers of cement and other material that might be needed and to contractors. A large number of large contracts have been secured to Americans by the department.

If the people of Ashantee are in need of agricultural implements, or will buy phonographs, the information is given to the department, and through it to American manufacturers. In his report for the fiscal year 1924 Secretary Hoover says of one of the activities of the department:

> The vital value of the bureau to all Americans concerned with world trade was signally illustrated during this past year by its informational and promotive efforts following the great earthquake disaster in Japan. Though our office in Tokyo was destroyed and its established routine shattered, the work was immediately resumed and vigorously pushed forward. Accurate estimates were given of the extent of the damage to the economic structure of Japan. Americans relying on raw materials from Japan were advised of the position and prospects. Markets for reconstruction materials were investigated. The purchase of great quantities of supplies here was furthered. In every phase of the situation the bureau was alert, active and helpful.
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> Yet this was only the most outstanding example of a service which, throughout the world, has been constantly growing in effectiveness. Profiting by their accumulated experience and utilizing ever more skillfully all the available means of trade promotion, our offices abroad and our divisions at Washington have made their efforts show a steadily rising proportion of practical results. Those efforts have been determined not by mere theories but by the specific requirements of American business, directly and precisely expressed.
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> During the past year the most significant feature of our work is to be found in this element of intimate contact and co-operation with American manufacturers, exporters, financiers and domestic merchants. Now, more than ever before, the bureau is functioning as an integral part of American economic life—an organization responsive to the guidance of its clients, while at the same time initiating a variety of services designed to strengthen and augment the currents of our trade.
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> Outside of the very large functions of the department in the promotion of foreign trade, in aid to navigation, in provision of systematic economic information, and in co-operation with commerce and industry to advance productivity, a definite constructive national program has been developed for the elimination of waste in our economic system. The need is plain. The American standard of living is the product of high wages to producers and low prices to consumers. The road to national progress lies in increasing real wages through proportionately lower prices. The one and only way is to improve methods and processes and to eliminate waste. Just as twenty years ago we undertook nation-wide conservation of natural resources, so now we must undertake nation-wide elimination of waste. Regulation

and laws are of but minor effect on these fundamental things. But by well-directed economic forces, by co-operation in the community we can not only maintain American standards of living—we can raise them.

We have the highest ingenuity and efficiency in the operation of our industry and commerce of any nation in the world. Yet our economic machine is far from perfect. Wastes are legion. There are wastes which arise from widespread unemployment during depressions, and from speculation and overproduction in booms; wastes attributable to labor turnover and the stress of labor conflicts; wastes due to intermittent and seasonal production, as in the coal and construction industries; vast wastes from strictures in commerce due to inadequate transportation, such as the lack of sufficient terminals; wastes caused by excessive variations in products; wastes in materials arising from lack of efficient processes; wastes by fire, and wastes in human life.

Against these and other wastes the department, acting always in co-operation with the industries themselves, has for the past three years developed an increasingly definite program. As these manifold activities of the department are based upon co-operation with industry and commerce, none of them leads to paternalistic ends. Many of the bureaus of the department have contributed to these activities.

Roster of Secretaries of Commerce and Labor

George B. Cortelyou, of New York.
From February 16, 1903, to March 5, 1906 (*see* Department of the Treasury).

Victor H. Metcalf, of California.
From July 1, 1904, to December 11, 1906 (*see* Department of the Navy).

Oscar S. Strauss, of New York.
From December 17, 1906, to March 4, 1909.

Charles Nagel, of Missouri.
From March 5, 1909, to March 5, 1913.

Secretaries of Commerce

William Cox Redfield, of New York.
From March 6, 1913, to October 31, 1919.

Joshua Willis Alexander, of Missouri.
From December 16, 1919, to March 4, 1921.

Herbert Hoover, of California.
From March 4, 1921.

Secretary Cortelyou was transferred by President Roosevelt first to the Postoffice Department and from there to the Treasury Department.
Secretary Metcalf was transferred to the Navy Department.

Biographies of Secretaries of Commerce and Labor

Oscar Solomon Strauss

Oscar Solomon Strauss—Secretary of Commerce and Labor from December 17, 1906, to March 4, 1909. Born in Ottenberg, Bavaria, December 23, 1850. Son of Lazarus and Sara Strauss. Educated at Columbia College. Married, in 1882, Miss Sarah Lavenburg.

1887—Minister to Turkey.
1902—Member Permanent Court at The Hague.
1906—Secretary of Commerce and Labor.
1909—Ambassador to Turkey.

The parents of Mr. Strauss came to America in 1854, locating in Georgia. They removed to New York in 1865, where Oscar attended Columbia College, being graduated with distinguished honor. Having adopted the law as his profession he studied that science and on being admitted to the bar began the practice in New York city.

In 1881 he gave up the practice and engaged in mercantile business, becoming interested in banking and other business enterprises. In 1887 he was appointed minister plenipotentiary to Turkey, winning in that position a high reputation as a diplomat. It was a difficult position but Mr. Strauss met fully all requirements. The next year the office was raised to ambassadorial rank.

In 1906 he was made Secretary of the Department of Commerce and Labor (the two departments then being combined). There he applied his knowledge of the commercial situation both in this country and in those of Europe and the East, to shape the activities along lines to increase our trade with other nations. Retiring from that position he was again appointed ambassador to Turkey.

Mr. Strauss has written a number of books, among them being "The Origin of Republican Form of Government in the United States" and "The Development of Religious Liberty in the United States." Mr. Strauss was active in all matters to advance education and for a number of years was president of the American Social Science Association.

Charles Nagel

Charles Nagel—Secretary of Commerce and Labor from March 5, 1909, to March 5, 1913. Born in Colorado county, Texas, August 9, 1849. Son of Hermann and Frederice (Litsman) Nagel. Educated in the public schools. Married, August 4, 1876, Miss Fannie Brandeis; May 5, 1895, Annie Shepley.

1881—Member Missouri House of Representatives.
1893—Member St. Louis City Council.
1909—Secretary of Commerce and Labor

After leaving the high school, where he graduated, Mr. Nagel studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1873. It was not long until he held a leading place among the lawyers of St. Louis and he maintained that high reputation. For several years he was a lecturer before the students of the St. Louis School of Law. He was always deeply interested in education and for a number of years was one of the trustees of Washington University in St. Louis.

Mr. Nagel wielded great influence among the German-American citizens and was looked upon as one of the leaders of that class of citizens. His probity and his loyalty to the American Constitution and to the principles upon which the government is founded gave him a leadership not only among German-Americans but with all classes.

His administration of the department was one of marked success. He brought the department up to a high state of efficiency, proving its importance to the business interests of the country.

BIOGRAPHIES OF SECRETARIES OF COMMERCE

WILLIAM COX REDFIELD

WILLIAM COX REDFIELD—Secretary of Commerce from March 6, 1913, to October 31, 1919. Born in Albany, New York, June 18, 1858. Son of Charles Bailey and Mary (Wallace) Redfield. Educated in the public schools of Pittsfield, Massachusetts. Married, March 1, 1885, Miss Elise M. Fuller.

1902—Commissioner of Public Works, Brooklyn.
1910—Member national House of Representatives.
1913—Secretary of Commerce.

Mr. Redfield's parents removed to Pittsfield, Massachusetts. Later he removed first to New York city and then to Brooklyn. There he engaged in the iron and steel business, becoming much interested in what he termed "Industrial Education." He wrote much on this and kindred subjects. As a business man he was more than usually successful. He made a high reputation as commissioner of public works of Brooklyn. This with other things recommended him to President Wilson for the position of Secretary of Commerce. This department was then still in the chrysalis stage. The energy and farsightedness of Mr. Redfield brought it into popularity with the varied business interests of the country. He introduced numerous changes, among them being the bringing to this country the annual fur seal sales, which before his time had been conducted in London.

JOSHUA WILLIS ALEXANDER

JOSHUA WILLIS ALEXANDER—Secretary of Commerce from December 16, 1919, to March 4, 1921. Born in Cincinnati, Ohio, January 22, 1852. Son of Thomas W. and Jane (Robinson) Alexander. Educated in the public schools and at Christian University, Canton, Missouri. Married, February 2, 1873, Miss Ann Richardson.

1876—Public Administrator of Daviess county, Missouri.
1882—Member Missouri General Assembly.
1882—Member Board of Education of Canton.
1886—Speaker Missouri House of Representatives.
1901—Judge of the Seventh Judicial District, Missouri.
1907—Member national House of Representatives.
1919—Secretary of Commerce.

When Mr. Alexander was only seven years old his father died, leaving him to the sole care of his mother. He removed with his mother to Missouri, first locating at Canton and in 1873 he made his home in Gallatin. He had graduated from the Christian University and had studied law. Being admitted to the bar in 1875 he began the practice of law at Gallatin. He took an active interest in all matters of education and in 1882 was elected a member of the Board of Education for Gallatin, remaining a member for more than a score of years, serving at various times as secretary and president of the board.

The same year he was elected a member of the Missouri General Assembly, serving three consecutive terms, being speaker of the House during his last term. He also served two terms as mayor of Gallatin.

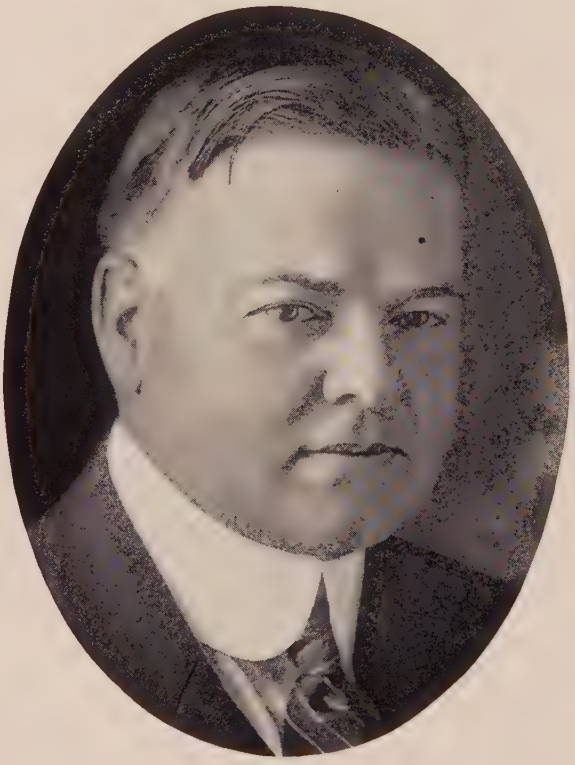
In 1907 he was sent to the national House of Representatives, where he remained until he resigned in 1919 to accept a seat in the cabinet of President Wilson as Secretary of Commerce to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Secretary Redfield. When the war in Europe came, involving transportation on the ocean, President Wilson appointed Mr. Alexander as the House of Representatives member of the "International Conference on the Safety of Life at Sea." Of this conference he was chairman of the United States commission.

In Congress he was for a time chairman of the House Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries. He was also chairman of the investigation of the so-called "Shipping Trust."

HERBERT HOOVER

HERBERT HOOVER—Secretary of Commerce from March 5, 1921. Born at West Branch, Iowa, August 10, 1874. Son of Jesse Clark and Hilda Randall (Minthorn) Hoover. Educated in the public schools of West Branch, the Pacific Academy at Salem, Oregon, and Leland Stanford University. Married, in 1899, Miss Lou Henry.

1921—Secretary of Commerce.



Herbert Hoover

Mr. Hoover came from Holland stock, being a direct descendant of Andrew Hoover, who emigrated from Holland in 1740. His father, who was a blacksmith by trade, died when Herbert was but four years of age and his mother died three years later. The orphaned boy was reared on a farm by Quaker relatives, his mother having been a preacher of that denomination. When he was but thirteen years of age it became necessary for him to earn his own living and he secured a position as office boy in Salem, Oregon.

After securing, under difficulties, a partial education, he entered Leland Stanford University at its opening. He paid his expenses from previous savings and by doing outside work. In summertime he worked in the various government surveys and in the mines of California. Having a natural aptitude for engineering he entered, on his admission to Leland Stanford, the department of geology and mining. On receiving his degree in 1895 he went to work as a mine laborer in California. Later he entered the employment of Louis Janin, at that time the leading mining engineer of the West, at a salary of forty-five dollars per month.

In 1897 he was sent to West Australia to examine mining properties there. After a successful career there he returned to the United States in 1899. Not long after his return to California the imperial government of China offered him the position of chief engineer of its Bureau of Mines. Accepting this position he sailed for the celestial empire, where he made extended investigation of the coal and iron mines of several of the provinces of the empire.

He was in China at the time of the Boxer rebellion and took an active part in defending the foreigners. The change of government in China ended his employment and he returned again to the United States. At the instance of British, German and Belgian bondholders of a large coal mining, railway and shipping concern he returned to China in 1901 as manager of these interests. Later he became a partner in a large engineering firm having offices in various cities in Europe and America. This continued until 1907, when he established himself as an engineer, having offices in New York and San Francisco. By 1913 the concerns of which he was consulting engineer were employing more than one hundred and seventy-five thousand men.

He was in Europe as a representative of the Pan-Pacific Exposition of San Francisco when the great war broke out. It was then he became connected with the work that brought him his greatest fame—feeding the starving people of Belgium. It was a work of humanity and called out all the great organizing ability of Mr. Hoover. The story of his work in that direction is a prominent part of the story of the great war. This work caused President Wilson, when the United States entered the war, to call Mr. Hoover to Washington to handle the food problem in this country, where he organized and directed the Food

Commission. Here his great organizing ability and his untiring energy had ample scope.

On entering upon the discharge of his duties as Secretary of Commerce, Mr. Hoover undertook the reorganization of the department to bring it into active service not alone to the business but to the agricultural groups. The great surplus productions of this country needed markets and the activities of the department were employed to find these markets. He brought the department to a position of being one of the most important of the agencies of the government. Through systematic organization the foreign trade was expanded and domestic commerce greatly improved.

The Department of Labor

The Department of Commerce and Labor had hardly got started in functioning before a demand went up from various sources for a separation and the establishment of a new department to handle all matters pertaining to labor. The industrial activities of the country were diversified, ramifying every section of the country and involving, to some extent, all classes of citizens. Labor was held to be no longer a commodity but an industrial unit by itself, and as such demanded to be handled separately from every other activity so far as government supervision, direction or control were concerned.

These considerations were impressed upon Congress and in the closing session of the sixty-second Congress an act was passed creating the Department of Labor. By the terms of the act it was not to become effective until March 4, 1913. The act declares "the purpose of the Department of Labor shall be to foster, promote and develop the welfare of the wage-earners of the United States, to improve their working conditions and to advance their opportunities for profitable employment."

To this new department were transferred from the Department of Commerce and Labor the bureaus, divisions and branches of the public service having to do with immigration, naturalization, the bureau of labor as then organized in the Department of Commerce and Labor and the children's bureau.

It was made the duty of the new department, among other things, to collect and report for public information complete statistics of the condition of labor and the products, and distribution of the products of the same. The Secretary was given power to act as mediator and to appoint commissioners of conciliation in labor disputes when he deemed necessary.

The matter of immigration had long been one of agitation on the part of Congress and of the varied interests of the country, and many efforts had been made to bring about a better condition of affairs between labor and the employment of labor, thus avoiding or preventing strikes, lockouts, etc. These perplexing questions are now the subject

of the activities of the Department of Labor. In his report for the year 1923, Secretary Davis thus speaks of the objects for which the department was created:

"The fundamental act creating the Department of Labor primarily requires this department 'to foster, promote and develop the welfare of the wage-earners of the United States, to improve their working conditions and to advance their opportunities for profitable employment.' * * * Either accidentally or by design, the Department of Labor has control of matters involving solely and exclusively personal or human rights, affecting the welfare and happiness of men, women and children everywhere. Its responsibilities are measured by its opportunities for good or evil, and the Secretary and the Assistant Secretaries, who act for and in his behalf, are called upon to decide personally and promptly great and momentous questions without the power to delegate the authority. The time of the Second Assistant Secretary is devoted almost exclusively to immigration matters, while the Secretary and First Assistant are employed in the solution of problems equally as perplexing and equally as important arising in connection with the other activities of the department."

The department has sometimes failed to accomplish all it hoped for, or all that was hoped for by the people, but it has brought about a much better condition of affairs between labor and the employment of labor than existed before it was organized under the act of Congress.

The seal as adopted by the department contains the following: Or. on a fesse gules, between an anvil in chief and a plough in base proper, a pulley, a lever and an inclined plane argent. Crest: An eagle displayed proper. Above the seal, placed circularly, the words: "DEPARTMENT OF LABOR," and below in similar manner the words: "UNITED STATES OF AMERICA," all inclosed within a circle. The implements (pulley, fulcrum and inclined plane) represented in this design are symbolical of the three fundamental principles of mechanics. The application of these principles to mechanical industry is signified by the anvil and hammer, and to agricultural industry by the plough. The colors are gold and red, the former denoting purity and sterling worth and the latter hardiness and valor.

Roster of Secretaries of Labor

William Bauchop Wilson, of Pennsylvania.
From March 5, 1913, to March 5, 1921.

John J. Davis, of Indiana.
From March 5, 1921.

Biographies of Secretaries of Labor

William Bauchop Wilson

William Bauchop Wilson—Secretary of Labor from March 5, 1913, to March 5, 1921. Born in Blantyre, Scotland, April 2, 1862. Son of Adam and Helen Nelson (Bauchop) Wilson. Married, June 7, 1883, Agnes Williamson.

1907—Member national House of Representatives.
1913—Secretary Department of Labor.

Secretary Wilson was of that good, old Scottish blood from which so many of the best citizens of America sprang. In 1870 he came to this country with his parents, who settled in Arnot, Tioga county, Pennsylvania. The next year, as a boy, he began working in the coal mines. That was his occupation for many years.

He was among the most earnest of the organization of the coal miners, given much time and study to the business itself and to what might advance the working miners. He was an ardent union man and stood high with his fellow-workers. From 1900 to 1907 he was secretary-treasurer of the United Mine Workers of America. In 1907 he was elected to Congress as a Democrat and re-elected two years later. In Congress he was urgent in advocating every measure that was intended to better, before the laws, the conditions of those who labor for a living, yet was never extreme. When Mr. Woodrow Wilson became President he called Mr. Wilson from his seat in the House of Representatives to take a place in his cabinet as Secretary of the newly created Department of Labor. This office he held during the two terms of President Wilson.

JAMES J. DAVIS

JAMES J. DAVIS—Secretary of Labor from March 5, 1921. Born in Tredegar, Wales, October 27, 1873. Married, in 1914, Miss Jean Rodenbaugh.

1898—City Clerk of Elwood, Indiana.
1892—Recorder of Deeds.
1921—Secretary of Labor.

The life story of Secretary Davis is almost a romance in itself. At the edge of eleven years an assistant to a puddler in a steel mill; at the age of forty-eight a cabinet minister. The "mill boy of the slashes" became Henry Clay, the wonderful orator, the "great commoner"; the "bobbin boy," of Massachusetts, became Nathaniel Banks, Speaker of the national House of Representatives and the wise and patriotic statesman; the "cobbler" of Massachusetts became Henry Wilson, Vice President of the nation; the "rail-splitter," of Illinois, became Abraham Lincoln, the immortal. What other country affords such opportunities?

The Secretary of Labor came from a family of puddlers. His grandfather, David, went to Russia and assisted in building blast furnaces in that country. Later he came to the United States on the same business and helped in the building of the first blast furnace in Maryland. His father came to this country and worked as a puddler to earn the passage money of his wife and six children. He first located at Pittsburgh but later removed to Sharon.

The Secretary was but ten years old when he came with his mother across the ocean to join the father at Sharon. There he soon went to work. His first employment was that of driving cows twice a day to and from pasture. For this he received one dollar and twenty-five cents per month. This was a small beginning, but it was a start in industry. At eleven years of age he began work in a nail factory for fifty cents per day. From this he graduated into a rolling mill as puddler's helper. By the time he reached sixteen years of age he was a finished puddler, capable of managing a furnace. Of this part of his life he said:

> Once a puddler, I joined the Amalgamated Association of Iron, Steel and Tin Workers—became, in short, a union man. A rule of the association provides that any one on ceasing to be a worker in iron, steel or tin forfeits his membership.
>
> A resolution, however, was adopted in behalf of Mahlan M. Garland and myself, under which both of us were permitted to remain in the organization. Mr. Garland had formerly been a puddler and served six years in Congress, dying not long ago in office. I still have my union card and so long as I pay my dues will be a member in good standing.

From Sharon he went first to Pittsburgh, and then to Elwood, Indiana, where he found a place in a tin mill. He took an active part in the labor union at Elwood and was made chairman of the organization.

James J. Davis

He grew very rapidly in the estimation of the people of Elwood and he was elected city clerk. Of this part of his life he said:

> The city clerk of Elwood was paid forty dollars a month. My wages at the tin mill were eight dollars a day. But I hoped that the clerkship would lead to something else. It did. My salary was increased and four years afterward I was elected recorder of the county. I was now in politics and enjoyed the experience. Looking ahead, I thought I might some day be the auditor of Indiana.

About that time he became interested in the Loyal Order of Moose and joined the order. He was an enthusiast in this direction. He said:

> The purpose of the order and its possibilities took my imagination by storm. Here, I thought, is a great work to be done, a work that is worthy of any man's time and ability. I grew so enthusiastic that I was asked the following year to become director general of the order.
>
> I held that office from 1907 to 1921 and was holding it when President Harding invited me to enter his cabinet. There are six hundred thousand Moose today in the United States and lodges in every American city and large town and a number in foreign countries.

Mr. Davis left New York for the European battlefields January 22, 1918. He was to sail on the ill-fated *Lusitania,* but was prevented as some of his associates were not ready. He returned to Europe again in the following December and visited all the battlefields. He is an enthusiast in the cause of labor and gives to that cause all his energies as secretary of the department.

FRANK BILLINGS KELLOGG
Secretary of State

JOHN GARIBALDI SARGENT
Attorney General

WILLIAM MARION JARDINE
Secretary of Agriculture

INDEPENDENT COMMISSIONS

NOT ALL THE ACTIVITIES OF THE GOVERNMENT are exercised by the executive departments. From time to time independent commissions have been authorized, exercising various functions from advisory to judicial. The first of these, the Civil Service Commission, was authorized by act approved June 16, 1883. It had grown to be almost a political axiom that "to the victors belong the spoils." It has always been said that this phrase was first used by Marcy, when he was Secretary of War. "Spoils," as he construed it, meant government positions.

Whether he was author of the phrase or not, from his time on the various subordinate positions, even to clerkships in the departments at Washington, were parcelled out among the members of Congress of the dominant party. About 1880 some of the newspapers began a course of severe criticisms of this method of filling positions under the government, and the criticisms eventuated finally into the enactment of a law establishing the Civil Service Commission. It was given charge, not of actual appointing, but by system of examination to make a list from which appointments should be made. At first this list went only to minor positions, but the power of the commission has from time to time been extended until now the great mass of subordinates under the government are selected from those who have successfully passed the examination prescribed by the commission.

The next important commission to be established is what is known as the Interstate Commerce Commission. This was authorized by an act approved February 6, 1887. Charge after charge had been made that the rates for freight transportation were very oppressive in many cases, and that in others they were unequal and unfair, giving some places a very unfair advantage over others. As railroads were regarded as public utilities, coming under the jurisdiction of Congress through the clause in the Constitution giving Congress the right to regulate commerce between the states, Congress finally took the matter up. The commission has almost absolute control over the various interstate transportation lines, requiring them to adopt such safety devices as the commission shall order, issue bonds or other evidences of indebtedness as may be approved, and to charge only such rates for freight or passenger traffic as declared by the commission to be just and reasonable.

With the establishment of these two independent commissions matters rested for awhile, but in 1913 came, what may well be called a fever for making new bureaus or commissions, each with amplified powers in certain directions. Prominent among these were the Federal Reserve Board, created by act of December 23, 1913, to have supervision of the

new Federal Reserve system; the Federal Trade Commission, under the act of September 26, 1914, to take over from the Department of Commerce the function of investigating and correcting unfair competition by those engaged in interstate commerce; the Council of National Defense, established by the act of August 29, 1916, to make dispositions for the entry of the United States into the World War; and the Shipping Board, established by act of September 7, 1916, to regulate carriers by water engaged in interstate and foreign commerce, and to encourage the development of an American merchant marine. Of all the independent commissions authorized by the government none has been the hot bed of scandal equal to the Shipping Board.

A number of minor boards were established during the same years such as the Bureau of Efficiency, originally set up as a division of the Civil Service Commission; the Board of Mediation and Conciliation; the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, the Employees Compensation Commission; the Tariff Commission, and the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The war with Germany resulted in an extraordinary expansion of the executive service, and new boards and commissions sprang up like mushrooms. Many new organizations were added to those already in existence, while those in existence had their powers greatly enlarged. A report by the Joint Committee on Reorganization of the Executive Departments thus speaks of the enlargement of powers and establishment of outside agencies:

> The Shipping Board was given, under war legislation, comprehensive authority over all phases of the shipping problem which confronted the United States during the war, including the authority to purchase, construct, equip, lease, charter, maintain and operate ships for the government as a part of the war program. This establishment, with its auxiliary, the Emergency Fleet Corporation, was one of the outstanding agencies of the period. The Council of National Defense extended its organization, largely recruited on a volunteer basis, throughout the entire country, aiding in a hundred ways the permanent establishments of the government in the conduct of the war program. The Federal Reserve Board, as controlling head of the Federal Reserve banking system, through which the Liberty loans were principally financed, was a tremendous support to the Treasury. The Federal Trade Commission administered the provisions of the trading-with-the-enemy act relating to enemy-owned or controlled letters patent, and made important investigations into production costs to serve as the basis of price regulation.
>
> By executive or administrative action, if not by legislation, literally scores of new agencies came into being during this period. Some were given departmental affiliation, but many operated virtually as independent establishments. Perhaps the most important of these were the office of the alien property custodian, established on October 22, 1917, under the provisions of the "trading with the enemy" act of October 6, 1917, to discover, take over, administer, and dsipose of enemy owned property in the United States and its territories; the Railroad Administration, organized under the proclamation of the President dated December 26, 1917, for the purpose of operating the railroads during the period of federal control; the War Finance Corporation, created by the act of April 5, 1918, to provide financial assistance to enterprises engaged in the production of war materials or in other operations contributory to the successful prosecution of the war; the War Industries Board, created July 28, 1917, by the Council of National Defense, to facilitate the

production of war materials with the minimum dislocation of industry; the War Trade Board, established by executive order of October 12, 1917, primarily to restrict the trade of enemy countries; and the Food and Fuel Administrations, created by the President in August, 1917.

During the war there was established in the Department of the Treasury a Bureau of War Risk Insurance for the purpose of insuring the lives of our soldiers and sailors, providing them compensation for disabilities incurred in line of duty, and paying allotments and allowances to their dependents. This bureau has given place to the Veterans' Bureau, which must of necessity function for many years to come. It controls and directs in the establishment and management of hospitals for the treatment of war veterans, and the arrangements for vocational education for those desiring such. Many of the outside boards set up during the war have gone out of existence, for instance such as the Food Commission, the Coal Commission, and the Railroad Administration.

Under the present departmental system there is much duplication of activities, occasionally resulting in serious complications. Many efforts to remedy this condition have been made, but up to this time nothing definite has been reached. At the session of Congress in 1920 a joint committee was raised to make an investigation and recommendations as to a complete reorganization, looking to the transference of bureaus from one department to another to more equally co-ordinate the work. The creation of two new executive departments have been suggested and urged upon Congress. One of the proposals is for the establishment of a Department of Education and Relief. On this the Committee on Reorganization says in its report:

> The proposed establishment of a department of education and relief rests solely upon the ground that the existing agencies doing work in these three fields, although scattered among several departments and establishments of the government, have a real community of aims, have many points of contact, and to some extent duplicate each other's equipment if not actually each other's work; and could, therefore, be administered with greater singleness of purpose, with less cost, and with improved practical efficiency, if they were assembled under the same administrative supervision.
>
> This will be evident from a general classification of the activities proposed to be drawn into the Department of Education and Relief. They fall into three groups: First, the educational group, consisting of the Bureau of Education, Howard University, and the Columbia Institution for the Deaf, all now either actually or nominally under the Interior Department, and the Federal Board for Vocational Education, now an independent establishment; second, the health group, including the Public Health Service of the Treasury Department, St. Elizabeth's Hospital, and Freedmen's Hospital of the Interior Department; and, finally, the veteran relief group, consisting of the independent Veterans' Bureau, the Bureau of Pensions of the Interior Department, and the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers, an independent establishment which the committee proposes should be given affiliation with the new department.

President Coolidge and His Cabinet

Back Row (left to right)—Calvin Coolidge, Andrew W. Mellon, Harlan Fiske Stone, Curtis D. Wilbur, Howard M. Gore and James J. Davis. *Front Row (left to right)*—Charles E. Hughes, John W. Weeks, Harry S. New, Hubert Work and Herbert Hoover.

AFTERWORD

ONE HUNDRED AND THIRTY-SIX YEARS AGO GEORGE WASHINGTON and his compatriots put in motion the machinery of a new government. It was indeed a new government, founded on a hitherto untried theory. It was new in the method by which it was to be operated. It was founded on the grand idea that the people have a right to govern themselves, and that they could govern themselves.

What giants of constructive statesmanship were those who gathered in Philadelphia in 1787! How lofty their ideals! How grand their conceptions! They planned the method by which the people were to govern themselves. The people were to select from among themselves representatives who were to enact such laws as might be necessary to guard the rights of the people to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," and to protect and defend the new nation from whatsoever enemies might arise against it. The same people were to select the person to whom the task of seeing that the laws thus made were duly and efficiently executed.

It was a government and a nation planted in the wilderness. A population of less than seven millions was scattered along in that narrow strip of territory between the mountains and the Atlantic Ocean. What have those one hundred and thirty-six years wrought! Then the industries were almost wholly agricultural, the exports confined to tobacco and cotton. Now the territory under President Coolidge stretches from ocean to ocean, and up even to the Arctic regions, and across the seas to the very doors of China. The seven million of people have become more than one hundred and twenty million; the exports now include the product of many thousand factories as well as the products of the farms.

In this book I have attempted to tell in brief the story of the cabinet, of those men who by their talents, their learning, their wisdom have aided the Presidents to carry on this government of the people. It may be, it is true, that sometimes a President has made a mistake and selected some person not best fitted for the place he was called upon to occupy, but in the main the places have been filled by men of exalted wisdom and patriotism.

What sovereign of Europe has ever collected around his council table wiser men, more capable statesmen than those who sat around the cabinet table of James Monroe? There were John Quincy Adams, William H. Crawford, John C. Calhoun, William Wirt, and Smith Thompson. Let Europe match them if it can. What other government has counted among its ministers directing its intercourse with foreign nations wiser statesmen than John Jay, John Quincy Adams, John For-

syth, Daniel Webster, John M. Clayton, William L. Marcy, William H. Seward, Hamilton Fish, Thomas F. Bayard, Philander C. Knox, and Charles E. Hughes; or greater ministers of finance than Alexander Hamilton, Albert Gallatin, William H. Crawford, Salmon P. Chase, Hugh McCulloch, Carter Glass, and Andrew W. Mellon; or advisers in legal matters men more learned in the law than William Wirt, John J. Crittenden, Reverdy Johnson, Jeremiah Black, and William H. Evarts?

Great men these, but great men will arise to fill those places in the future. Wisdom did not die with this past generation, nor will it die with this. These last pages of the book are written just as Calvin Coolidge is preparing to enter upon the term as President to which the people have so triumphantly elected him. For nearly two years he has administered that high office as successor to the lamented Harding, who died a martyr to what he believed to be his duty, worn out in the very meridian of life. Mr. Coolidge picked up the affairs of the government as they dropped from the hands of President Harding. It was a difficult task he assumed. The country was burdened with a debt so enormous as hardly to be conceived by finite minds; the people were staggering under a load of taxation such as no other people had labored under; wild extravagance had grown up in every department of the government and in the domestic affairs of the people, engendered by the war. The business of the government and of the country at large had to be brought back to normalcy.

To this task President Coolidge addressed himself. Extravagance was checked, taxes reduced, and millions of the public debt paid off and discharged. So capable did he prove himself that the people called him to serve a term he and history would call his own. Around his cabinet table will sit men equal in wisdom and statesmanship to those who in other days have aided Presidents to guide and direct the nation.

THE AUTHOR.

Appendix I

Washington's Proclamation of Neutrality

The Proclamation of President Washington issued in 1793 declaring the neutrality of the United States during the war then existing in Europe, has been declared to be the most direct and concise exposition of the duties of a neutral nation and its citizens in time of existing war ever issued by any government.

Whereas, It appears a state of war exists between Austria, Prussia, Sardinia, Great Britain and the United Netherlands of the one part and France on the other, and the duty and interests of the United States require that they should, with sincerity and good faith, adopt and pursue a conduct friendly and impartial toward the belligerent powers:

I Have, Therefore, thought fit by these presents, to declare the disposition of the United States to observe the conduct aforesaid toward those powers respectively, and to exhort and warn the citizens of the United States carefully to avoid all acts and proceedings whatsoever which may in any manner tend to contravene such disposition.

And I Do Also Hereby Make Known, That whosoever of the citizens of the United States shall render himself liable to punishment or forfeiture under the law of nations by committing, aiding, or abetting hostilities against any of the said powers, or by carrying to any of them those articles which are deemed contraband by the modern usage of nations, will not receive the protection of the United States against such punishment or forfeiture; and further, that I have given instructions to those officers to whom it belongs to cause prosecutions to be instituted against all persons who shall, within the cognizance of the courts of the United States, violate the law of nations with respect to the powers at war, or any of them.

In Testimony Whereof, I have caused the seal of the United States of America to be affixed to these presents, and [seal] signed the same with my hand. Done at the city of Philadelphia, the twenty-second day of April, 1793, and of the Independence of the United States of America the seventeenth.

By the President:

Th. Jefferson. Go. Washington.

Appendix II

The Monroe Doctrine

THE FINAL OVERTHROW OF NAPOLEON left Europe in a chaotic condition. It is true that thrones had been re-established, but the spirit of liberty was abroad. The situation over there cannot be better described than is done by Woodrow Wilson in his "History of the American People":

With the return of peace all questions had become domestic questions, and it seemed now, for the nonce, to be no serious differences of opinion concerning them. Mr. Monroe took an early opportunity to domesticate, as it were, the very foreign policy of the government, by confining its issues to the Americas. European statesmen were putting their houses in order after the convulsions of the Napoleonic wars; setting up thrones which had been overturned, rehabilitating states which had been torn asunder, reassigning territories, establishing once more the balance of power and the rights of shaken dynasties. Finding their careful work likely to be marred and rendered of no avail by the passion for liberty which had spread like an unquenchable fire out of France and touched the subjects of almost every sovereign of Europe, they drew their states together under the leadership of Austria and her consummate Metternich to crush every rising, silence every demand for liberal reform, and make good the jeoparded absolutism of their kings throughout the length and breadth of Europe. Their reactionary purposes having been accomplished with some touch of thoroughness on the continent itself, Spain prayed them to assist her to win the revolted colonies of South America back to her crown, and they seemed about to accede to her prayer.

It was this attitude of the powers of Europe that brought from President Monroe the enunciation of what we and the world now accept as the Monroe Doctrine. In 1822 President Monroe had recognized the independence of the South American republics. In his annual message to Congress in December, 1823, he proclaimed the attitude of the government toward those republics and to the American continents as a whole. He said:

In the wars of the European powers in matters relating to themselves we have never taken any part, nor does it comport with our policy so to do. It is only when our rights are invaded or seriously menaced that we resent injuries or make preparations for defense. With the movements in this hemisphere we are of necessity more immediately connected, and by causes which must be obvious to all enlightened and impartial observers. The political system of the allied powers is essentially different in this respect from that of America. This difference proceeds from that which exists in their respective governments; and to the defense of our own, which has been achieved by the loss of so much blood and treasure, and matured by the wisdom of their most enlightened citizens, and under which we have enjoyed unexampled felicity, this whole nation is devoted. We owe it, therefore, to candor and

to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered and shall not interfere. But with the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States.

Appendix III

President Cleveland Reaffirms the Monroe Doctrine

Plain, concise and full of meaning is the Monroe Doctrine. In the wars of Europe the United States had never taken any part, and never would take any part, in any future wars over there. But the Americas were to be in all future times for Americans. Europe took the warning and this policy of the United States was never seriously called in question until Grover Cleveland was President.

A controversy had been long pending between British Guiana and Venezuela over the boundary line between the two countries. Several times the United States had made efforts to use its good offices to bring the controversy to a pacific conclusion, but the British government pushed forward its claims without listening to any suggestions on the part of this government. At last information was received that Great Britain contemplated taking possession by force of the disputed territory. It was then President Cleveland took a hand.

Through Secretary of State Olney an earnest suggestion was made to Great Britain to submit the matter to arbitration. Secretary Olney put the proposition in the strongest and most forcible language possible, for he was one capable of using strong terms when the occasion required. It was of no avail. The British premier at first shifted, and then finally refused to even consider arbitration in any form. In his regular message to Congress in December, 1895, President Cleveland used this strong language:

> It being apparent that the boundary dispute between Great Britain and the Republic of Venezuela concerning the limits of British Guiana was approaching an acute stage, a definite statement of the interest and policy of the United States as regards the controversy seemed to be required both on its own account and in view with its relations with the friendly powers directly concerned. In July last, therefore, a despatch was addressed to our ambassador at London for communication to the British government in which the attitude of the United States was fully and distinctly set forth. The general conclusions therein reached and formulated are in substance that the traditional and established policy of this government is firmly opposed to a forcible increase by any European power of its territorial possessions on this continent; that this policy is as well founded in principle as it is strongly supported by numerous precedents; that as a consequence the United States is bound to protest against the enlargement of British Guiana in derogation of the rights and against the will of Venezuela; that considering the disparity in strength of Great Britain and Venezuela the territorial dispute between them can be reasonably settled only by friendly and impartial arbitration, and that the resort to such arbitration should include the whole controversy, and is not satisfied if one of the powers concerned is permitted to draw an arbitrary line through the territory in debate and to declare that it will submit to arbitration only the portion lying on one side of it. In view of these conclusions, the despatch in question called

upon the British government for a definite answer to the question whether it would or would not submit the territorial controversy between itself and Venezuela in its entirety to impartial arbitration. The answer of the British government has not yet been received, but it is expected shortly, when further communication on the subject will probably be made to Congress.

The reply when received was a definite refusal by Great Britain to submit the whole question to arbitration. On its receipt President Cleveland sent to Congress a special message, concluding with the following pointed paragraphs:

The course to be pursued by this government in view of the present condition does not appear to admit of serious doubt. Having labored faithfully for many years to induce Great Britain to submit this dispute to impartial arbitration, and having been now finally apprised of her refusal to do so, nothing remains but to accept the situation, to recognize its plain requirements, and deal with it accordingly. Great Britain's present proposition has never thus far been regarded as admissible by Venezuela, though any adjustment of the boundary which that country may deem for her advantage and may enter into of her own free will cannot, of course, be objected to by the United States.

Assuming, however, that the attitude of Venezuela will remain unchanged, the dispute has reached such a stage as to make it now incumbent on the United States to take measures to determine with sufficient certainty for its justification what is the true divisional line between the Republic of Venezuela and British Guiana. The inquiry to that end should, of course, be conducted carefully and judicially, and due weight should be given to all available evidence, records and facts in support of the claims of both parties.

In order that such an examination should be prosecuted in a thorough and satisfactory manner, I suggest that the Congress make an adequate appropriation for the expenses of a commission, to be appointed by the Executive, who shall make the necessary investigation and report upon the matter with the least possible delay. When such report is made and accepted it will, in my opinion, be the duty of the United States to resist by every means in its power, as a willful aggression upon its rights and interests, the appropriation by Great Britain of any lands or the exercise of governmental jurisdiction over any territory which after investigation we have determined of right belongs to Venezuela. In making these recommendations I am fully alive to the responsibility incurred and keenly realize all the consequences that may follow.

I am, nevertheless, firm in my conviction that, while it is a grievous thing to contemplate the two great English-speaking peoples of the world as being otherwise than friendly competitors in the onward march of civilization and strenuous and worthy rivals in all the arts of peace, there is no calamity which a great nation can invite which equals that which follows supine submission to wrong and injustice and the consequent loss of national self-respect and honor, beneath which are shielded and defended a people's safety and greatness.

Appendix IV

Cabinet Nominations Rejected by the Senate

No nomination for the cabinet was rejected by the Senate until the stormy administration of President Jackson. His fight against the United States Bank brought on a controversy with the Senate.

Roger B. Taney, of Maryland, nominated by President Jackson for Secretary of the Treasury, rejected June 24, 1834.

James M. Porter, of Pennsylvania, nominated as Secretary of War by President Tyler, rejected by the Senate January 30, 1844. Only three votes were cast for his confirmation.

David Henshaw, of Massachusetts, nominated for Secretary of the Navy, by President Tyler, rejected by the Senate January 15, 1844.

Caleb Cushing, of Massachusetts, nominated to be Secretary of the Treasury by President Tyler, rejected March 3, 1843.

James S. Green, of New Jersey, nominated as Secretary of the Treasury by President Tyler, rejected by the Senate June 15, 1844.

Henry Stanbery, of Ohio, nominated by President Johnson to be Attorney General, rejected by the Senate January 2, 1868.

Charles B. Warren, of Michigan, nominated by President Coolidge as Attorney General, rejected by the Senate March 10, 1925. Name again submitted. Rejected March 16, 1925.

Of the twenty-nine Presidents, seven of them had previously held cabinet positions—Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, John Quincy Adams, Martin Van Buren and Buchanan—had each served as Secretary of State, and Taft as Secretary of War. Calhoun was Secretary of War when elected Vice President.

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